

TEACHERS' DECISIONS ON CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION: STANDARDIZED
AND CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS OF PEDAGOGY IN DIVERSE AND
MARGINALIZED CONTEXTS DURING THE ERA OF ACCOUNTABILITY

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation used qualitative research methods to explore teachers' decisions. Public school teachers provided explanations of their curriculum and instruction for 46 classroom lessons across a variety of subject areas and grade levels. The teachers' worked in diverse school settings, including Title I schools. Interviews were analyzed for the influences on teachers' decisions. Influences were interpreted for connections to frameworks of standardized and contextualized pedagogies associated with education reform. Findings were reviewed by teachers who participated in the study, and their critical realizations about the findings were included. Overall, the study found that teachers' decisions in the era of accountability reform are meaningful in relation to the history of education and the implementation of education policy. These findings have implications for teachers' practice, scholarly research, and the future preparation of teachers working in Title I school contexts.

Keywords: Teachers' Decisions, Classroom Practice, Education Reform, Standardized Pedagogy, Accountability Reform, Contextualized Pedagogy, Contextualization, Marginalized Contexts, Title I Schools

TEACHERS DECISIONS

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TEACHERS DECISIONS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE INQUIRY.....	12
BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	16
<i>As a Researcher and Teacher, I was new to Hawai‘i</i>	17
<i>Accountability Reforms</i>	18
PURPOSE OF STUDY	19
<i>The Role of Context in Teaching and Learning</i>	20
OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	24
<i>Decisions About Curriculum and Instruction</i>	25
ORIENTATION TO INQUIRY	27
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	29
THE PROCESS OF INQUIRY	31
THE CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	33
<i>A Starting Point</i>	34
<i>Critical, Foundational, and Standing Points</i>	34
<i>Contextual Point</i>	35
ANALYTICAL METHODS	36
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	37
<i>Valuing Teachers’ Decisions and Work</i>	39
<i>Schools are Disconnected from Students’ Lives</i>	43
<i>Professional Learning for Divergent Pedagogies Addressing Contextual Realities</i>	45
OUTLINE OF SUBSEQUENT CHAPTERS	48
<i>Chapter 1: Introduction to the Inquiry</i>	48
<i>Chapter 2: My Narrative Entry in the Inquiry - A Starting Point</i>	48
<i>Chapter 3: A Review of Federal Education Policy - A Critical Point</i>	49
<i>Chapter 4: A Review of Literature on Education Policy - A Foundational Point</i>	49
<i>Chapter 5: A Review of Literature on Contextualized Pedagogy - A Standing Point</i>	49
<i>Chapter 6: Context of the Research</i>	49
<i>Chapter 7: Overarching Research Project: Highlighting Effective Teaching Strategies (HETS)</i>	49
<i>Chapter 8: Research Study Design</i>	50
<i>Chapter 9: Findings about Teachers’ Decisions on Curriculum and Instruction</i>	50
<i>Chapter 10: Discussion and the Significance of the Study</i>	51
CHAPTER 2: MY NARRATIVE ENTRY IN THE INQUIRY - A STARTING POINT	52
NARRATIVES AS A WAY TO SHARE POSITIONALITY	53
NARRATIVE AS AN ETHICAL AND USEFUL ENTRY POINT FOR RESEARCH.....	54
THE FIRST NARRATIVE: TEACHING IN A MARGINALIZED SPACE	56
<i>Academic Issues</i>	58
<i>The First Thing</i>	59
<i>My First Day</i>	60
<i>My First Classroom</i>	62
<i>My First Critical Reflections</i>	64
<i>Making Practical Changes for Relevance</i>	71
THE SECOND NARRATIVE: MY EXPERIENCE IN HAWAI‘I	74
<i>Powerful Rhetoric in the Hawai‘i Context</i>	76
<i>My Experience in Teacher Preparation</i>	77
<i>A Classroom Narrative in Hawai‘i</i>	79
CONCLUSION: A CRITICAL TRANSFORMATION	84
CHAPTER 3: A REVIEW OF FEDERAL EDUCATION POLICY - A CRITICAL POINT	86

TEACHERS DECISIONS

<i>Critical Perspectives on Accountability Reforms</i>	87
U.S. FEDERAL EDUCATION POLICY	88
<i>Race to the Top Reforms</i>	88
<i>The Rhetoric of Power</i>	91
<i>Reason for Pause</i>	93
THE INFLUENTIAL CENTER OF FEDERAL EDUCATION POLICY	94
<i>Education Reform and the Targeting of Diverse and Marginalized Students</i>	95
<i>Critical Considerations About the Targets of Reform</i>	96
THE MEANS AND MECHANISMS OF FEDERAL EDUCATION POLICY	104
<i>Holding Schools Accountable as an Organizing Principle</i>	105
STANDARDIZED APPROACH TO PEDAGOGY	106
<i>The Reform of Teachers' Classrooms</i>	107
<i>The Universal Goal</i>	109
<i>Standardized Mechanisms</i>	110
CONCLUSION.....	116
CHAPTER 4: LITERATURE ON EDUCATION POLICY - A FOUNDATIONAL POINT	119
FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION POLICY AND REFORM	119
<i>Operating Policy Under a Veil</i>	120
<i>Why We Must Confront Hidden Aspects of the Foundations of Education Policy</i>	121
<i>Use of Critical Scholarship in Exploring Policy</i>	123
THE POLITICS AND POLICIES OF FAILING SCHOOLS.....	124
<i>Education Policy for Cold War Defense of the Nation-State</i>	125
<i>Education Policy, the Great Society, and War on Poverty</i>	126
<i>A Nation in an Educational Crisis</i>	129
<i>Doubling Down on Holding Schools Accountable</i>	130
SCHOOLS AS THE GREAT EQUALIZER.....	134
<i>Universal Academic Basics for All</i>	135
<i>Schools as a Means of Assimilation</i>	136
<i>Standardized Testing as the Measure of Mann</i>	137
<i>Standardization as a Means of Social Engineering</i>	137
<i>Mass Schooling as a Means of Social Darwinism</i>	138
<i>Eugenics and Racism at the Foundation of Educational Institutions</i>	140
A COLONIAL EXAMPLE OF FEDERAL POLICY.....	142
<i>Benevolent Policy of U.S. Politicians</i>	142
<i>Enlightenment Thinking in the Treatment of Native Peoples</i>	145
<i>A Pre-Ordained Prophecy of U.S. Federal Domination</i>	147
<i>A New (and More Civilized) Reform Mechanism</i>	148
FOUNDATIONS OF CONTEMPORARY POLICY	150
<i>Neoliberal Ideology</i>	150
<i>Theoretical Foundations of Federal Education Policy</i>	153
CONTINUED SKEPTICISM AROUND THE EFFICACY OF REFORMS	158
CHAPTER 5: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGY - A	
STANDING POINT	162
CONTEXTUALIZATION IN THE PROCESS OF LEARNING.....	163
PURPOSE OF EXAMINING CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGY	165
FOUNDATIONS OF CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGIES	167
ORIGINS OF CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGIES	168
<i>Foundational Constructs: Culture-Based Pedagogy</i>	169
<i>Foundational constructs: Critical Pedagogy</i>	170
<i>Foundational Constructs: Place-Based Pedagogy</i>	171

TEACHERS DECISIONS

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGIES	172
<i>Theoretical Constructs of Culture-Based Pedagogy</i>	173
<i>Theoretical Constructs of Critical Pedagogy</i>	174
<i>Theoretical Constructs of Place-Based Pedagogy</i>	176
CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGY IN PRACTICE.....	178
<i>The Practice of Culture-Based Pedagogy</i>	179
<i>The Practice of Critical Pedagogy</i>	180
<i>The Practice of Place-Based Pedagogy</i>	180
EFFECTS OF CONTEXTUALIZATION ON STUDENT LEARNING	181
BARRIERS TO IMPLEMENTATION	183
CONCLUSION.....	187
CHAPTER 6: CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH.....	189
HAWAI'I'S CULTURAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC CONNECTIONS	190
HAWAI'I AS AN ECOLOGICALLY UNIQUE PLACE	190
COLONIAL CONNECTIONS TO HAWAI'I'S EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT	191
HAWAI'I'S PUBLIC SCHOOL CONTEXT	192
HIDOE TEACHER AND STUDENT DEMOGRAPHICS IN THE RESEARCH SET	192
MARGINALIZED ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH CONTEXT	193
HAWAI'I'S CONTEXT FOR REFORM	193
<i>The Reason for the Race</i>	194
<i>Hawai'i's Public Schools' Goals for Academic Achievement</i>	195
<i>Hawai'i's Public Schools' Mechanisms of Reform</i>	196
<i>Hawai'i's Public School's Restructuring Plans</i>	197
THE EVALUATION OF HAWAI'I'S RACE TO THE TOP WORK	199
<i>Native Hawaiians as the Target of Reform</i>	199
<i>Hawai'i's Disconnect</i>	202
<i>Educational Opportunities for Resistance</i>	203
CONCLUSION.....	204
CHAPTER 7: THE RESEARCH PROJECT: HIGHLIGHTING EFFECTIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES (HETS).....	207
DESCRIPTION OF LARGER PROJECT	207
<i>Timeline</i>	209
<i>Reciprocity</i>	211
<i>Funding and Compensation</i>	211
<i>Access to Hawai'i Department of Education Schools</i>	212
<i>Participants</i>	216
<i>Participant Procedures</i>	218
FROM THE CONTEXT OF HETS TO THE CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH SET	219
<i>School and Student Cultural Context in the Research Set</i>	219
<i>Demographic Table 1. School Demographics- Significant Cultural Groups</i>	220
<i>Demographic Table 2. School Context- Socioeconomics</i>	222
<i>School and Student Ecological Context in the Research Set</i>	222
<i>Demographic Table 3. School Context- Geographic</i>	222
CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH STUDY DESIGN	223
AN OPPORTUNITY FOR CRITICAL QUALITATIVE RESEARCH.....	224
WHY GROUNDED THEORY WORKS FOR THIS STUDY	225
<i>Opposing Positivist Research</i>	226
<i>Managing Methodological Problems</i>	227
<i>Keeping the Interpretations Grounded</i>	227

TEACHERS DECISIONS

<i>Engaging in heuristic and inductive sense-making</i>	228
<i>More Contextually-based Interpretations</i>	228
OVERVIEW OF METHODS BORROWED FROM GROUNDED THEORY PROCESSES	230
RESEARCH STUDY DESIGN	230
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	231
DATA COLLECTION: SETTINGS AND PARTICIPANTS.....	232
<i>Description of Teacher Participants</i>	232
<i>Teachers in Non-Title I, Title I & Marginalized Schools</i>	233
<i>Demographic Table 2. School Context- Socioeconomic</i>	233
<i>Teacher Demographics: Ethnicity</i>	233
<i>Demographic Table 4. Teacher Participant- Self-Identified Ethnicity</i>	234
<i>Demographic Table 5. Teacher-Student Demographic Comparison HIDOE, 2014-2015</i>	235
<i>Teacher in Various Grade Levels</i>	235
<i>Demographic Table 6. Teacher Participant- Grade level</i>	236
<i>Teachers in Various Subject Areas</i>	236
<i>Demographic Table 7. School Context- Subject Areas and Grade Levels</i>	237
<i>Teachers' Educational Background</i>	238
<i>Demographic Table 8. Teacher Participant- Highest Degrees and Certification</i>	238
<i>Teachers with Years of Experience</i>	239
<i>Demographic Table 9. Teacher Participant- Years Teaching</i>	239
<i>Teachers with Years in Living in Hawai'i</i>	240
<i>Demographic Table 10. Teacher Participant- Years Living in Hawai'i</i>	240
DATA COLLECTION: INTERVIEWS AS FIELD TEXTS.....	240
OPERATIONALIZING THE TERMS AND PROCESSES IN THIS INQUIRY	242
THE STAGES OF ANALYTICAL PROCESS	242
<i>Analytical Process Figure 1. The Stages of Analytical Process</i>	244
<i>Coding through the Stages of the Analytic Process</i>	244
<i>Memo Writing as an Analytical Process</i>	245
MY ANALYTIC PROCESSES IN STAGES, STEPS AND OUTPUTS	246
<i>Analytical Stage 1: Exploratory Coding</i>	246
<i>Analytical Process Table 1. Exploratory Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions</i>	247
<i>Analytical Stage 2: Generative and Descriptive Analytical Processes</i>	249
<i>Analytical Process Table 2. Descriptive Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions</i>	250
<i>Analytical Stage 3: Thematic Modeling</i>	253
<i>Analytical Process Table 3. Thematic Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions</i>	254
<i>Analytical Stage 4: Theoretical Questions</i>	255
<i>Analytical Process Table 4. Processes for Analyzing Categories of Teachers' Decisions</i>	256
<i>Analytic Stage 5: Reflexive Processes and Teacher Dialogue</i>	259
CONTINUITY OF CODES	263
<i>Analytical Process Figure 3. The Coherence of Inductive Outputs</i>	263
<i>Analytical Process Figure 4. The Coherence of the Deductive Outputs</i>	264
CONCLUSIONS ON RESEARCH PROCESSES.....	264
CHAPTER 9: RESULTS AND FINDINGS ABOUT TEACHERS' DECISIONS	267
TEACHERS' DECISIONS ORGANIZED INTO CATEGORIES	268
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 1. The 12 Categories of Teachers' Decisions</i>	268
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 2. Frequencies of Category</i>	269
<i>Across Cases and Contexts</i>	269
<i>Decisions Categorized as Instructional Diversification-Based</i>	272
<i>Decisions Categorized as Administrative-Driven</i>	274
<i>Decisions Categorized as Assessment-Based</i>	275

TEACHERS DECISIONS

<i>Decisions Categorized as Standards-Based</i>	277
<i>Decisions Categorized as Skill-Building</i>	279
<i>Decisions Categorized as Context-Building</i>	281
<i>Decisions Categorized as Resources-Based</i>	283
<i>Decisions Interpreted as Autonomy-Driven</i>	285
<i>Decisions Categorized as Professional Learning-based</i>	290
<i>Discussion of Categories with Teacher Reflexivity</i>	291
DISCUSSION OF THEMATIC MODEL	293
<i>A Thematic Model</i>	295
FURTHER ANALYSIS: USING THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS OF PEDAGOGY	303
<i>Theoretical Table 1. Foundational Aspects of Standardized Pedagogy</i>	304
<i>Theoretical Table 3. Foundational Aspects Within Contextualized Pedagogies</i>	305
<i>Standardized Dimensions of Teachers' Decisions</i>	306
<i>Theoretical Interpretations and Teacher Reflexivity</i>	312
FURTHER ANALYSIS: CRITICAL QUESTIONS AMONG DIVERSE AND MARGINALIZED CONTEXT	313
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 22. Standardized and Contextualized in Non-Title I</i>	313
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 23. Standardized and Contextualized in Title I</i>	314
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 24. Standardized and Contextualized in Marginalized</i>	314
<i>Analytical Interpretations Table 25. Standardized and Contextualized Across Context</i>	315
<i>Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 1</i>	316
<i>Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 2</i>	317
<i>Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 3</i>	318
<i>Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 4</i>	319
<i>Barriers to Contextualization as Expressed Through Teacher Narratives</i>	319
CHAPTER 10: IMPLICATIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	323
BARRIERS TO CONTEXTUALIZATION AS PRESENTED IN LITERATURE	324
IMPLICATIONS	325
<i>Education Policy and Contextualization</i>	325
<i>Teachers' Knowledge and Contextualization</i>	328
<i>Teacher Preparation and Contextualization</i>	331
BROADER CONCLUSIONS.....	332
<i>Reforming the Dominant Narrative</i>	332
<i>Confronting Discursive Power</i>	335
<i>Education as Simply a "Good" Thing</i>	337
CRITICAL EVALUATION OF QUALITATIVE INQUIRY	341
LIMITATIONS TO MY APPROACH	346
FUTURE SCHOLARLY RESEARCH.....	349
CONCLUSION.....	351
REFERENCES	353
APPENDIX I: SCHOOL AND TEACHER DEMOGRAPHICS	407
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 1. SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHICS- SIGNIFICANT CULTURAL GROUPS	407
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 2. SCHOOL CONTEXT- SOCIOECONOMIC	408
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 3. SCHOOL CONTEXT- GEOGRAPHIC	409
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 4. TEACHER PARTICIPANT- SELF-IDENTIFIED ETHNICITY	410
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 5. TEACHER-STUDENT DEMOGRAPHIC COMPARISON HIDEOE, 2014-2015	411
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 6. TEACHER PARTICIPANT- GRADE LEVEL	412
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 7. SCHOOL CONTEXT- SUBJECT AREAS AND GRADE LEVELS.....	413
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 8. TEACHER PARTICIPANT- HIGHEST DEGREES AND CERTIFICATION	414
DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 9. TEACHER PARTICIPANT- YEARS TEACHING.....	415

TEACHERS DECISIONS

DEMOGRAPHIC TABLE 10. TEACHER PARTICIPANT- YEARS LIVING IN HAWAI‘I.....	416
APPENDIX TWO: ANALYTICAL PROCESSES	417
ANALYTICAL PROCESS FIGURE 2. PROCESSES FOR ANALYZING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	418
ANALYTICAL PROCESS FIGURE 3. THE COHERENCE OF INDUCTIVE OUTPUTS	419
ANALYTICAL PROCESS FIGURE 4. THE COHERENCE OF THE DEDUCTIVE OUTPUTS	420
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 1. EXPLORATORY PROCESSES FOR INTERPRETING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS.....	421
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 1A. EXPLORATORY CODING OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	422
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 2. DESCRIPTIVE PROCESSES FOR INTERPRETING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	423
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 2A. OPEN CODING OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	424
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 2B. FOCUSED CODING OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	425
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 2C CATEGORICAL CODING OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	426
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 3. THEMATIC PROCESSES FOR INTERPRETING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS.....	427
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 3A. THEMATIC MODELING OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	428
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 4. THEORETICAL AND CRITICAL PROCESSES FOR INTERPRETING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	429
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 4A. THEORETICAL INTERPRETATIONS OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	430
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 4B. CRITICAL INTERPRETATIONS OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	431
ANALYTICAL PROCESS TABLE 5. REFLEXIVE PROCESSES FOR INTERPRETING TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	432
ANALYTICAL PROCESS GLOSSARY OF TERMS.	434
<i>Procedural Terms</i>	434
<i>Contextual Terms</i>	435
<i>Coding Terms</i>	437
<i>Reflexive Terms</i>	441
<i>Terms for the Evaluation for Quality and Clarity</i>	442
<i>Terms and Concepts for External Evaluation for Quality and Clarity</i>	443
APPENDIX THREE: ANALYTICAL OUTPUT	444
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 1. INITIAL HOLISTIC CODES ACROSS ALL INTERVIEWS	444
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 2. FREQUENCY OF HOLISTICALLY CONSTRUCTED EXPLORATORY CODES	445
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 3. EXPLORATORY CODES IN NON-TITLE I CHARTER SCHOOLS	446
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 4. EXPLORATORY CODES NON-TITLE I SCHOOLS.....	447
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 5. EXPLORATORY CODES IN TITLE I SCHOOLS	448
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 6. EXPLORATORY CODES IN TITLE I SCHOOLS	449
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 7. EXPLORATORY CODES IN TITLE I SCHOOLS	450
> 60% FRL.....	450
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 8. FOCUSED ASPECTS OF EXPLORATORY CODES.....	451
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 9. FREQUENCY ASPECTS EXPLORATORY CODES	452
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 10. OPEN CODES ACROSS CASES AND CONTEXTS.....	453
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 11. FOCUSED CODES	454
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 12. MOST FREQUENT FOCUSED CODES.....	455
ANALYTICAL OUTPUT TABLE 13. CATEGORIES ACROSS CASES AND CONTEXTS (BEFORE DEEPER DIVE N=294)	456
APPENDIX FOUR: ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLES.....	457
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 1. 12 CONCEPTUAL CATEGORIES OF TEACHERS’ DECISIONS	458
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 2. FREQUENCIES OF UNIQUE CODES IN CATEGORY	459

TEACHERS DECISIONS

ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 3. DIMENSIONS OF <i>STUDENT ENGAGEMENT</i> CATEGORY	460
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 4. DIMENSIONS OF <i>INSTRUCTIONAL DIVERSIFICATION</i> CATEGORY	461
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 5. DIMENSIONS OF <i>ADMINISTRATIVE-DRIVEN</i>	462
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 6. DIMENSIONS OF <i>ASSESSMENT-BASED</i>	463
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 7. DIMENSIONS OF <i>STANDARDS-BASED</i> CATEGORY	464
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 8. DIMENSIONS OF <i>SKILL-BUILDING</i> CATEGORY	465
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 9. DIMENSIONS OF <i>CONTEXT-BUILDING</i> CATEGORY	466
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 10. DIMENSIONS OF <i>RESOURCE-BASED</i> CATEGORY	467
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 11. DIMENSIONS OF <i>PROFESSIONAL AUTONOMY</i> CATEGORY	468
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 12. DIMENSIONS OF <i>SEQUENCING THE CURRICULUM</i> CATEGORY	469
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 13. DIMENSIONS OF <i>DIFFERENTIALLY APPROPRIATE-BASED</i> CATEGORY	470
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 14. DIMENSIONS OF <i>PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT</i>	471
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 15. THEMATIC ASPECTS OF THE PRACTICAL CONTINUUM	472
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 16. THEMATIC ASPECTS OF THE PRACTICAL CONTINUUM	473
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 17. CATEGORICAL DIMENSIONS OF <i>STRUCTURE-CENTERED</i> THEME	474
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 18. CATEGORICAL DIMENSIONS OF <i>TEACHER-CENTERED</i> THEME	475
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 19. CATEGORICAL DIMENSIONS OF <i>LEARNING-CENTERED</i> THEME	476
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 20. STANDARDIZED ASPECTS FROM CATEGORICAL DIMENSIONS	477
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 21. CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS FROM CATEGORICAL DIMENSIONS	478
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 22. STANDARDIZED AND CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS IN NON-TITLE I CONTEXTS	479
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 23. STANDARDIZED AND CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS IN TITLE I CONTEXTS	480
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 24. STANDARDIZED AND CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS IN MARGINALIZED CONTEXTS	481
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 25. STANDARDIZED AND CONTEXTUALIZED ASPECTS	482
ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLE 26. THEMATIC DIMENSIONS OF STANDARDIZED ASPECTS	483
APPENDIX FIVE: THEORETICAL PEDAGOGY TABLE	484
THEORETICAL TABLE 1. IDEOLOGICAL, THEORETICAL, AND PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF STANDARDIZED PEDAGOGY	485
THEORETICAL TABLE 2. ASSOCIATIVE PROBLEMS ACROSS THE DEVELOPMENT OF STANDARDIZED PEDAGOGIES.	486
THEORETICAL TABLE 3. IDEOLOGICAL, THEORETICAL, AND PRACTICAL ASPECTS WITHIN CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGIES	487
THEORETICAL TABLE 4. GENERAL AND SHARED REASONS FOR DEVELOPMENT ACROSS SPECIFIC CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGIES.	488

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE INQUIRY

On most work days, public school teachers make hundreds of classroom decisions—from how lessons link to what students already know to which instructional standards are covered in a lesson to how students’ will be assessed— assuming that their professional choices ultimately work to support students’ learning. Teachers must decide on what they will teach, how they will teach it, and the materials students will use in the learning process, among other aspects of curriculum and instruction. Teachers have many professional reasons for why it is they choose to do what they do in their classrooms. Research suggests that teachers justify reasons on foundational beliefs, knowledge, experiences, education, professional networks, as well as how they perceive these lessons as meaningful to students’ learning (Ball, 2012; Bartolome, 1994; Biesta, Priestley, & Robinson, 2015; Hargreaves, 1998; McDonnell & Elmore, 1987; Rogers, 2011; Stromquist & Monkman, 2014; Tetlock, 1985). Yet, while many teachers appear to make decisions based on seemingly independent, professional reasons, administrative directives and broader policy contexts (often situated far beyond the classroom walls) are also believed to influence teachers’ work (Au, 2007; Bartolome, 2004; Bien, 2013; Biesta et al., 2015; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009; Spillane et al., 2011; Zeprun, 2014).

This study focuses on making sense of the reasons teachers share about their decisions on curriculum and instruction to develop conceptual, theoretical, and critical understanding about teachers’ work across different classrooms and within various school contexts. This research uses teachers’ interviews and qualitative analytical processes to make sense of teachers’ decisions in meaningful ways and in relation to the professional day-to-day language that teachers use to talk about their work. The interpretations of teachers’ decisions are organized to take into consideration the range of influences on teachers’ work. The constructions are useful

TEACHERS DECISIONS

because they provide an opportunity to explore more theoretical and critical aspects of teachers' work. Primarily, this research seeks to make connections between the dimensions of teachers' decisions and language and concepts located in broader pedagogical frameworks and contexts that influence their work. Specifically, the inquiry builds connections between the theoretical foundations of standardized and contextualized pedagogies located near the education reform and teachers' classroom discourse.

School contexts and teachers' worlds are complex and nuanced environments. For this reason, I start by sharing my classroom narratives coming from my experiences as a classroom teacher and as a college instructor responsible for preparing new teachers. These experiences are situated within broader policy contexts, explicitly accountability reforms that have encouraged both dominant and divergent pedagogical approaches that are designed to support students in reaching academic and learning goals. Literature associated with dominant and divergent pedagogical approaches, opens up opportunities to view powerful, questionable, and contextualized influences that exerted on teachers work in diverse and marginalized contexts. The inquiry explicitly confronts the recent expansion of the U.S. federal government's role in regulating how public schools operate, particularly those operating in diverse and marginalized communities.

An exploration of teachers' work during the "Era of Accountability" is meaningful because federal education policy has incentivized actions by state and local schools to implement standardized classroom mechanisms across contexts. Policymakers argue that the mandates are necessary to help students achieve prescribed levels of academic performance on standardized tests. These reformers also claim that students' achievement on standardized tests is strongly

TEACHERS DECISIONS

correlated to positive economic outcomes and opportunities for both individual students and the nation as a whole (ESEA, 2015; NCLB, 2002; Ravitch, 2013; RTT, 2009).

While schools are perceived to contribute positively to individual and national economic development, a significant problem exists because as the reform mechanisms diffuse within school operations, they directly influence with how teachers approach decision-making in the classroom (Au, 2007; Bartolome, 2004; Bien, 2013; Biesta et al., 2015; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009; Spillane et al., 2011). The federal policies that focus on curriculum and instruction as the driver of academic performance have been argued to explicitly and discursively reorient teachers' work around more narrowly defined and standardized pedagogical frameworks (Berliner, 2009; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2007; Day et al., 2007; Ravitch, 2012). The standardization of curriculum and instruction needs to be considered against much maligned aspects within the historical, political, ideological foundations of federal education policy, including a very dubious perception of students (Apple, 2000; Bartolome, 2004; Burch, 2004; Cole, 1996; Engestrom & Miettinen, 1999; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Lipman 2009; McLaren, 2015; Pacheco, 2010; Prucha 1990). Standardized mechanisms, founded on explicit but questionable ideas and enacted by teachers, have the potential to communicate these questionable values which may influence the solidification of social structures embedded at their foundations (Bartolome, 1994; Bernstein, 1991; Bennett & Frow, 2008; Burch, 2007, 2009, 2010; Lipman, 2007).

While the federal reforms and standardized pedagogies both directly and discreetly influence teachers' professional lives, there is little agreement among teachers, administrators, and scholars as to which pedagogies should be at the foundation of classroom practice (Cole, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1995). This uncertainty flies in the face of the implementation of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

standardized pedagogical approaches linked to accountability reforms, and directly notes that these pedagogical approaches are not the only way of doing things. This research questions whether the imposition on teachers' work by federal policy is an oversimplification of how to think about and act in public schools (Ball, 1993; Kohn, 2000; Lipman, 2004; McNeil, 2002).

A more complicated and thoughtful approach may include contextualized pedagogies were designed reactively to diverge from the dominant, standardized approaches. Unlike many standardized approaches, contextualized pedagogies seek to develop connections between students' lives and classroom learning. These pedagogies find their purpose in histories, ideologies, theories, and practices nearly antithetical to the approaches linked to accountability reforms. For examples, contextualized pedagogies eschew the questionable colonial, economic, uniform and regulatory logics in favor of reasons situated more closely to lifeworld of the student (Freire, 2000; Gay, 2002; González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Gruenewald, 2003; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & González, 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp, 2006). Contextualized approaches rely on cultural diversity, socioeconomic realities, and ecological environments located in students' lives to construct a more humanizing approach to teaching and learning (Au & Jordan, 1981; Demmert, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Moll et al., 1992; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 2000; Wyatt, 2009, 2015; Yamauchi, 1993, 2003). Not surprisingly, contextualized pedagogies have been demonstrated to be effective in supporting learning of a range of diverse and marginalized students, including in indigenous contexts (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Dalton, 2007; Demmert, 2001; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp, 1997; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Waxman et al., 2003).

Background of the Study

This research study focuses on teachers' classroom decisions with considerations for these divergent approaches argues that it is a matter of social justice given that reforms discriminately target students in diverse and marginalized contexts with uniform treatment of curriculum and instruction. The idea for exploring the professional and contextual influences on teachers' decisions arose from my experiences as a teacher. Like many beginning teachers, I was working in a classroom where, in many ways, I struggled to be effective. Generally speaking, I realized that my knowledge (or lack thereof) about the school and community context where I was working made my practice problematic. My decisions were complicated because I possessed limited ability to make relevant connections between the curriculum and instruction and my students' lives. When I used the curriculum provided by the school, and in the way they wanted it used, in combination with instructional strategies that I was taught in teacher-training courses, I was left wondering whether the curriculum makers or teacher trainers were familiar with either my day-to-day decisions or contextual aspects of my students' lives. As I struggled to engage my students in learning, I identified that myself and my curriculum and instruction lacked nuanced understanding, knowledges, experiences, and practices that allowed for a connection between my work and my students' lives, including very basic things like language they were familiar with or materials they were interested in. All told, I felt as if I lacked the necessary skill set, a particular mindset, and a knowledge of a meaningful material set to be effective in supporting my students' learning.

As I reflected on my practice, I asked critical questions that resulted in realizations about aspects of the curriculum and instruction that I was using. Subsequently, I wanted to know more about where it came from and who developed it. I wanted to know more about how it connected

TEACHERS DECISIONS

to aspects of my students' lives. I was curious about whether it was the same curriculum being used in other classrooms. Surely, with all these teachers in the world, many of who were teaching in the same district, someone had to have a relevant and effective curriculum that I could use? As I continued to reflect on my situation, it occurred to me that I had much to learn about the foundations of my thinking and practice.

As a Researcher and Teacher, I was new to Hawai'i

A few years later I began my graduate studies in Hawai'i, and was intent on exploring the foundations of teacher practice. In particular, I wanted to know more about the process of contextualization and with focused consideration for its role in developing social justice oriented teaching. I specifically wanted to know more about the way the contextualization operated (or did not operate) in public school contexts. As I was working and researching in schools in Hawai'i, and in particular Title I schools where many teachers were new to the profession, I began to notice similar complexities around the way curriculum and instruction was or was not linked to contextual aspects of students' lives.

Similar to the problems in my experience as a middle school teacher, I was not initially familiar with the Hawai'i context, especially the various and nuanced historical, cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological lives of the diverse group of students learning in Hawai'i's public schools. Given my lack of knowledge, and based on my previous experiences, I immediately sought out more contextual information about the school communities and foundations of teachers' practice. While doing so, I kept one critical eye on the imposition of curriculum and instruction linked to accountability reforms. I concluded that some teachers, especially those who were familiar with the community context, appeared to connect classroom materials, learning opportunities, and discourse to their own and students' lives. Alternatively, other

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers, many of whom were new to the Hawai‘i schools, lacked deeper knowledge of context, and perhaps critical sense of self, struggled to make curriculum and instruction relevant. From what I could tell, and from what more knowledgeable others had told me, my observations about what appeared to be a lack of contextualization in public school classrooms was not off the practical mark.

Accountability Reforms

My understanding about the use of contextualization in schools is complicated by the fact that at the time, the federal reforms of *No Child Left Behind* and *Race to the Top* were being implemented. The federal funding required Hawai‘i to follow policy directives and adopt regulatory mechanisms designed to improve student performance on standardized measures of learning. Standardized mechanisms used across Hawai‘i’s classrooms included Hawai‘i Performance and Content Standards (HCPS), Common Core State Standards (CCSS), universal and prescriptive curriculums in core subject areas from publishing companies like Success for All, America’s Choice, Orgio, Houghton Mifflin, McGraw-Hill, and Pearson; defined instructional practices from these companies and other professional frameworks of practice, data coaches connected to the proliferation of data collection, and standardized tests most recently designed by Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (SBAC) and evaluated by American Institutes for Research (AIR). Most of these mechanisms are meant to guide teachers’ curriculum and instruction (and the evaluation thereof), and most are developed outside of the context in which they are implemented. Additionally, many aspects of these mechanisms, in relation to their reform functions, rely on external and objective experts, often not from or familiar with the Hawai‘i context, to regulate and monitor curricular and instructional changes. As such, these imported models of practice have the potential to be culturally, socially, and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

ecologically disconnected from teachers' work in Hawai'i's unique and local contexts.

A Significantly Different (but Equally Problematic) Narrative on Education

While the complications from lack of knowledge of context and disconnect between curriculum and instruction and students' lives seemed outwardly similar to my previous experiences, I noted one significant anecdotal difference about my experiences in Hawai'i. In my previous experience, many of teachers' in my school were from similar cultural backgrounds to my students and were knowledgeable about the contextual realities. In Hawai'i, this was not always the case. When exploring Hawai'i public schools and the recruitment and preparation of teachers, I inquired about people's perspectives on the idea of local culture, perspectives, and knowledge in classrooms. When I did so, I heard what appeared to be questionable narratives expressed by teachers and administrators. The narratives (covered in depth in Chapter 2) spoke to ideas about undervaluing or devaluing of local knowledges and experiences. As I continued to work (and reflect) across the unique Hawai'i contexts, each with localized aspects of culture, socioeconomic challenges, and ecologies, these narratives played as constant critical feedback, and especially in ways I found problematic while watching teachers. In my experience, many teachers and schools appeared to miss appropriate connections between their curriculum and instruction and students' lives.

Purpose of Study

Given the reforms, narratives, and examples, I wondered whether these contextual influences contributed to the lack of contextualization because they were situated within the larger picture of education reform based on an effective and accountable model of education. As a teacher who experienced (and created) these challenges firsthand, and as someone who is now responsible for preparing teachers in unique contexts, I was encouraged to consider whether

TEACHERS DECISIONS

research that pointed the finger directly at complex, nuanced, and dialectical issues of local and non-local teachers was ethical. I took this to heart, and instead decided to begin by pointing the finger at my own narrative in relation to the broader picture of education reform. Given what I had been told about contextualization as a practice in public schools, as well as what would be a meaningful contribution to academic research, I sought to engage in a meaningful discussion about the barriers to contextualization, including the influence of federal reforms and a lack of focus on contextualized pedagogies. For this reason, I decided to start with exploring teachers' decisions within curriculum and instruction in diverse and marginalized communities.

The Role of Context in Teaching and Learning

(CREDE enters, stage right.) Another significant difference in the Hawai'i context, was the fortuitous appearance of the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa. I encountered professionals working with pedagogical strategies founded on sociocultural theories and designed in context that had been effective for students from culturally and linguistically diverse student groups. One of the practical-theoretical strategies that CREDE researchers studied, developed, implemented, and researched again, included the process of contextualization. As they defined it, contextualization amounted to a sophisticated yet accessible way of thinking about making connections between what a student already knows or values from their community-based lives and the learning that is taking place in the classroom. As the CREDE teacher-researcher partners used (and studied) contextualization across culturally and linguistically diverse contexts, some scholars claimed that contextualization as a teaching process was the "most prominent" practical element to support learning (Yamauchi, 2003).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The CREDE program, and instructional strategies, appeared committed to the success of diverse and marginalized students in Hawai‘i, the United States, and across the world. Generally speaking, CREDE is linked to a professional learning model of education reform that includes coaching teachers through a meaningful transformation of their classroom practice. The model uses videos as an observational tool from which to examine practice. This practice-oriented research model is unique in that it originated in Hawai‘i, and in Native Hawaiian school contexts and institutions. As I got to know more about the CREDE research center, and participated and observed the work they were doing, I continued to hear teachers, both local and new, from outside and inside the context, make troubling claims about the general imposition of education reforms that included standardized learning objectives, scripted curriculums, outside experts, and the pressures and influences associated with standardized testing. These experiences were situated alongside narratives that highlighted the significance of contextualization in teaching practice. The following are some anecdotes from teachers who participated in CREDE professional development workshops speaking to these realities in their classrooms. Teachers said,

In my way of thinking, I did not want to let go of control of the student’s learning. I was obsessive and compulsive about order and the way things had to be done with me as the center of attention (High School ELA teacher, interview, O‘ahu, 2011).

As a school, we don’t use CREDE; it doesn’t have a place in the scripted curriculum. Within the scripted curriculum, there is no place for individualized learning styles, and there is little individual contextualization. Everyone is assumed to be at the same place and working on the same thing (Elementary school teacher, Moloka‘i, interview, 2011).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

We are an America's choice school and this is a big problem. America's choice is the same test and the same activities for all students (High School ELA teacher, O'ahu, interview, 2011).

CREDE led me to an epiphany. We have been poisoned by scripted programs (Elementary school teacher, O'ahu, interview 2011).

These statements were among others from teachers who had critical realizations within the opportunity of professional learning on contextualized pedagogies. When coupled with my reflections across multiple spaces and knowledge of reforms, I knew this conversation was situated in larger dialogue being had across schools and classrooms in the state and around the country, but it was also very contextually specific to this unique location. Furthermore, I saw teachers' eyes light up when they would talk about connections made between their curriculum and instruction and students' lives. Each time, the stories were attached to classroom narratives about how students are both engaged and learning. Teachers shared:

CREDE made me rethink all of my ideas about teaching (Elementary school teacher, O'ahu, interview, 2011).

Prior to CREDE we did not have a lot of discussion. With CREDE my students were taking risks, I was teaching more and we had more light bulbs (High School ELA teacher, O'ahu, interview, 2011).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

I really learned how to interact with the students. I always used to forget to state the purpose. We needed these values. I let them talk about their own experiences. The kids started to look forward to learning (Elementary school teacher, O‘ahu, interview, 2011).

CREDE made me think about my practice. It made me think about relevance and student engagement, it made me want to get more complex and make the connections to students. (Middle school Math teacher, O‘ahu, interview 2011)

The salient point for me from these classroom realities was- when curriculum and instruction are contextualized in the life-world of the student, students become engaged and their learning improves.

To find a way to explore the process of contextualization in public schools (or lack thereof), I needed to develop a study that allowed me to explore what I had felt, seen, and heard. I wanted to find appropriate clarity about how to approach research with contextual nuance, ethical practices, and a larger sense of reciprocity to the community. In the process, I was fortunate to receive access to a federal research grant from the U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Assistance (DOLETA). The grant provided funding to create a video library of teacher practice consisting of a range of classroom observation videos focused generally on the curriculum and instruction of the teacher. The library also contains a number of teacher interviews focused on all manner of teacher perspectives on curriculum and instruction, but mostly importantly for this study, the teachers provided their reasons for choosing curriculum and instruction. In total, the library has over 50 videotaped and transcribed examples of teachers’ classroom lessons and over 150 transcribed interviews that speak directly to the curriculum and instruction that is used in classroom lessons. I purposefully made these resources

TEACHERS DECISIONS

available to teachers, professionals, and researchers in order to drive a conversation around teacher practice. The videos are available to teacher preparation professionals and have been indexed as evidence of a framework for effective instructional practices utilized for professional learning by the Hawai'i Department of Education (HIDOE). However, I am interested in aspects of, and barriers to, the contextualization of knowledge in the classroom, and the state-wide enacted instructional framework does not include a mention of contextualization as one of its instructional strategies.

Overview of the Study

Critical questions about compulsory public school curriculum and instruction have been a regular part of education scholarship since mass schooling began in the United States over 150 years ago. These questions are posed by people who identify with various aspects of a pluralistic society consisting of diverse groups of people, all of whom operate from a wide range of histories, values, ideas, and practices that contribute to somewhat different conceptions of the reasons behind learning in public education. Recognizing that teacher's decisions are based on both personal and professional ideas and values, and in relationship to structural and material contexts, this dissertation uses qualitative methods to explore public school teachers' decisions across curriculum and instruction and multiple school contexts. It also uses a broad-based appreciation for scholarly literature and policy documents in education. A synthesis of these texts supports asking critical questions of teachers' decisions, and in particular to (1) pedagogical foundations linked to the broader contexts of reform and (2) how teachers might (and might not be able to) approach curriculum and instruction with consideration for local contexts of students' lives. That said, the interpretations of teachers' work are my own, with respectful considerations for their daily realities and in relation to these literatures.

Decisions About Curriculum and Instruction

Given my experiences with CREDE, my professional understanding of the problems associated with contextualization, the significant scholarly literature on pedagogical approaches linked to educational reform, and in order to explore these frame in relation to field work, I chose to focus on the conceptual foundations of teachers' decisions for their curriculum and instruction. I looked at the transcripts from the teachers' interviews on curriculum materials and instructional strategies. In these interviews, teachers are asked openly and explicitly about the reasons behind their decisions on curriculum and instruction.

From the sociocultural perspective, teachers develop reasons for decision-making out of their social interactions while engaging in an inherently social process in complex social contexts, (Diamond, 2007; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wertsch, 1991, 1993). Teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction are very much dependent on their knowledge of and experiences within these processes and contexts (Britzman, 1991, 2001; Calderhead, 1996; Diamond, 2007; Kagan, 1992), and teachers' knowledge and experiences are the foundation of how they conceptualize and actualize their work (Borko & Shavelson, 1990; Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). It is logical to presume that a teacher's thinking (consisting of knowledge and experiences) changes their practice, and this occurs as teachers interact with various structures and contexts. Due to this, their decisions stand as important windows into seeing this knowledge and context nexus and how each might complicate their explanations for their actions (Mansour, 2008; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Also, we know that teachers care deeply about their knowledge of and relationships to their students as a driver for their work, and they continually develop over time and with each new group of students (Comber & Nixon, 2009; Lasky, 2005).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In this inquiry, I consider the under-researched dynamics of how their decisions are situated in these complex social environments (Borko & Shavelson, 1990; Nespor, 1987; Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Weis & Giroux, 1983). As discussed earlier, federal policy is a part of the surfeit of social and political influences on teachers' work as teachers' decisions appear to change based on outside policies that include the imposition of regulatory educational mechanisms (Diamond, 2007; Hargraves, 1984, 1994; Goodson, 2003, 2012; Goodson & Walker, 1995). Policy exists within a range of contextual factors related to policy, pedagogy, and students' lives for the development of curriculum and instruction (Ball, 1995, 2000; McDonnell & Ellmore, 1987; Stromquist & Monkman 2000; Tetlock, 1985). It contributes to what scholars suggest is a need for increased knowledge about the relationship between teachers' decisions and the broader influential contexts (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Lasky, 2005; Luke, 2006; Malsbary, 2015; Wyatt, 2015; Neumann, 2016).

Teachers' curriculum and instruction are complicated and contested constructs situated within a conversation about the reason, purposes, and structures behind student's educational experiences (Jung & Pinar, 2015). Teachers' decisions about curriculum are often situated within the objectives and outcomes of learning sequences. Curriculum sequences are linked to a particular content area and connected to educational materials and texts to support student learning. Ideas about instruction often include the design of activities that encourage students' engagement within curriculum and methods used by teachers to guide students through the learning process. Teachers often make these decisions about curriculum and instruction in the classroom, or on a school level in teams and in conjunction with administration. More recently, these decisions have been complicated by the adoption of common standards, universal

TEACHERS DECISIONS

curriculums, standardized tests, and instructional evaluations linked to tightly knit frameworks of practice.

This inquiry seeks to arrive at a point to discuss teachers' work in oppositional terms of standardized and contextualized pedagogy. With that said, teaching is not easily placed into one box as either/or. Rather, teaching is a complex expression of professional planning, pedagogical knowledge, judgments, and autonomy in relationship to broader social contexts, that include, among others, policy and administration, professional learning, collegial conversations, and students' lives (Bidwell, 2001; Diamond, 2007). I treat curriculum and instruction as a part of that interconnected social process enacted by professionals and informed by contextual constraints (and possibilities) created by institutions and society. Overall though, teaching is more robust than the narrow parameters placed upon it by scripts and frameworks. Teachers, in most cases, are highly educated and experienced professionals who make meaningful decisions about actions they take in their classrooms. At a very fundamental level, when that bell rings and the door closes, teachers are the ones who decide what they will teach, how they will teach it, and what materials they will use to support student learning, and they will do so based on a range of influences.

Orientation to Inquiry

(We) can no longer accept the status of an object of inquiry as a thing-in-itself. Any social, cultural, psychological, or pedagogical object of inquiry is inseparable from its context, the language used to describe it, its historical situatedness in a larger ongoing process, and the socially and culturally constructed interpretations of its meaning(s) as an entity in the world. (Kincheloe, 2001, pp. 179-180)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

As Joel Kincheloe (2001) contributes, inquiry “is inseparable from its context”. I orient myself critically towards an examination of teaching in relation to professional actions, policy, history, and recent research issues that highlight dominant approaches to pedagogy. As I confront these dominant approaches, I illuminate aspects of taken-for-granted educational processes occurring in complex diverse and marginalized spaces (Kaomea, 2016). This research complicates a general understanding of teaching as a good thing and problematizes the dynamic social and professional process in these spaces in relation to a range of broader contexts and associated approaches to teaching and learning.

As such, the inquiry in and of itself is not intent on objectifying teaching as a singular social phenomenon, nor is its goal to construct a theory or tautological proofs about teachers’ decisions and perceptions. I do not proclaim an established theory about the myriad ways education reform explicitly changes teachers’ practice, or establish the value of specific pedagogies related to students’ performance on standardized measures of learning. This inquiry is not an attempt to develop a positivist positional authority about which decisions or perceptions teachers should make or have. This is not, by any means, a prescriptive instructional solution to be implemented in diverse and marginalized contexts. This study is not about arriving at polarizing claims about teachers and teaching, but rather....

This inquiry is about exploring contexts that inform teachers work and providing unique and contextual evidence to support new ways of looking at teachers’ decisions. This is an attempt to develop conceptual and critical understanding about teachers’ decisions so that we might engage in a conversation about the contexts that inform them as well as what may be considered barriers to making decisions based on the contextual realities of students’ lives. The study seeks to contribute to a meaningful conversation founded on the practical aspects of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers' work and with recognition for teachers' perspectives. It is meant to inform discussions that are already going on about the day-to-day work in schools and questions that already exist with regards to whether opportunities to connect students' lives to curriculum and instruction are being targeted, obstructed, and influenced by reforms. In so much, it acknowledges teacher's decision making and the purpose of education as a problem of practice meant to be talked about in diverse and critical ways, arriving at a place to make some broad conclusions, based on teachers' perspectives, about acknowledged contextual and pedagogical tensions that exist in classrooms during periods of government reform, and insomuch that they become barriers to contextualization.

I acknowledge that the complex nature of this study is insignificant in comparison to the complex nature of the social phenomena under investigation. The teachers who participated in this study do not represent the whole of teachers or instruction, but represent a window into their world and work that when examined through a different lens can make meaningful sense of just one dimension of the complex social process of teaching. The stories, literatures, and interpretations that I present here do not represent the whole of contexts informing teachers' work. These aspects that frame my inquiry represent powerful and rich narratives that I, and others, believe are situated near teaching and that can provide depth and nuance to our understanding. With that said, I tolerate and respect the ambiguity that comes with this process of inquiry, my interpretations, and the reading of it.

Research Questions

The research questions are separated into grounded research questions that are focused on gathering a descriptive understanding of the phenomena under study and secondary analytical questions which ask deeper and more critical questions of the interpretations made from

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers' decisions. The questions focus on the broad concepts of *how* a diverse range of K-12 teachers describe the reasons behind their decisions on individual lessons. The grounded question leads to the building and research of materials that can then be explored using analytical techniques adapted from grounded theory methods. The grounded questions are:

1. What are teachers' reasons for their decisions on curriculum and instruction across public school contexts?
2. What do interpretations of teacher's decisions tell us about the conceptual foundations of their classroom practice and how can we make practical sense of them?

The secondary research questions are both theoretical and critical. The secondary layer of interpretation moves past some of the initial descriptive research interpretations towards more valuable aspects of the data situated in contexts. These questions reveal relationships that exist in relationship to the contexts that I discuss in the contextual framework, including the appearance of accountability discourse, contextualized pedagogies, and whether we can find evidence to suggest that reforms discriminately target Title I and marginalized students. Together, these secondary questions are more focused on getting to the essence of what the study is about (Charmaz, 2008; Mason, 2002). The deeper analytical questions are as follows:

3. How are teachers' decisions associated with the foundations of standardized or contextualized pedagogical frameworks and does this differ among Title I, Non-Title I, and marginalized contexts?
4. What critical realizations, conclusions, and implications can be made from the analytical interpretations?

The Process of Inquiry

The process required that I gain access to information from teachers working in public schools. I required analytic processes to make sense of their work. I used a variety of perspectives to initiate difficult questions about teaching. As such, this inquiry does not lend itself to an approach “by rote or by recipe” (Mason, 2002). In incorporating multiple contexts for discussion, the discussion of teachers’ work begins away from methodological procedures and academic research logics. I accept that no singular, formal method of inquiry or analysis is adequately prepared to work through the sheer vastness of contextual realities, and especially from all of the multiple viewpoints (Kaomea, 2001). With that said, the range of perspectives in this inquiry was necessary because the research was conducted in a variety of unique and nuanced contexts.

Interpretations drawn from teachers’ explanations provide understanding about aspects of their classroom thinking and pedagogical reasoning. Overall, the qualitative inquiry is designed to: (a) generate conceptual understanding about teachers’ everyday work within curriculum and instruction across contexts; (b) create claims about relationships between teachers’ decisions and standardized and contextualized frameworks of pedagogy and in context; (c) elicit professional perspectives on research about the interpretation of teacher’s decisions in relationship to influence, pedagogy, and context; (d) develop some conclusions about the barriers to contextualization from the multiple interpretations of teachers’ decisions during the “Era of Accountability”; and, (e) share some implications and future research considerations for understanding more about the barriers to contextualized curriculum and instruction in the diverse and marginalized context.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

An exploration of teachers' classroom decisions in relation to pedagogy and context requires a nuanced construction of aspects of education reform that have been argued to play a role in influencing teachers during the "Era of Accountability." To accomplish this, the study includes my experiences as a new teacher and teacher educator (Chapter Two), a description of the context of federal education policy and accountability reforms (Chapter Three), and a foundational unpacking of the questionable foundations of these reforms (Chapter Four). Chapters three and four combines to represent ideological, theoretical, and practical components of what I am calling a standardized pedagogical framework.

The intrusion of standardized mechanism founded on questionable foundations and practices creates a pedagogical tension when we consider that contextualized pedagogies, the foundations of which are presented in Chapter five, offer a well-researched and advocated for approach to pedagogy. These plainly oppositional pedagogies link to clear contextual aspects and educational issues present in the research context that is considered by reformers as the "perfect place" to implement reform. Chapter six seeks to describe aspects of the research setting vis-a-vis the participant demographics and school contexts in a combination of meaningful cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological diversity situated among a very sensitive colonial history and legacy. Aspects of this setting continue to complicate certain underrepresented groups access to relevant and socially just education, and so closely related socioeconomic resources and opportunities.

After setting the contextual stage, I explain the data collection processes for developing field texts situated with a larger project to develop a video library of teacher practice and focus in on the interviews used as the singular source of initial interpretations (Chapter Seven). In chapter Eight, I engage in a description of the methods, and related terminology, for the complex

TEACHERS DECISIONS

qualitative analysis, consisting of many stages, processes, and steps. The methods, primarily borrowed from grounded theory analytical techniques, lead to the development of conceptual understanding around the reasons teachers provide for their classroom decisions. Then, I use professional, theoretical, and critical questioning to make sense of teachers' decisions in relationship to standardized and contextualized pedagogy and within specific contexts and a reflexive exploration and presentation of my interpretations to teachers who participated in the study and were familiar with working in diverse and marginalized school contexts (Chapter Nine). Teachers' conclusions were used to move the study in a discussion of implications of the research and opportunities for future research and the interpretations in relationship to the contextual framework (Chapter Ten).

The Contextual Framework

My qualitative approach to interpretations, claims, and conclusions about teachers' work uses a five-point contextual framework consisting of rich descriptions of broad and relevant educational contexts from: (1) starting, (2) critical, (3) foundational, (4) standing, and (5) contextual points of inquiry. The points are respectively built from professional narratives, critical literatures, scholarly perspectives, and a considerate description of the research setting. Together, they provide perspective on teaching in schools serving culturally diverse and economically marginalized students. The contextual framework allows for the study to ask critical questions that lead to the construction of nuanced analytical claims and conclusions. As Goodson (2014) states, "in studying the teacher's work in a fuller social context, the intention is to develop insights, often in a grounded and collaborative manner, into the social construction of teaching" (p. 33).

I begin by generating descriptions of teachers' work. This supported a critical

TEACHERS DECISIONS

illumination of controversial, standardized aspects of education reforms in teachers' decisions to further consider the value and possibilities of using contextualized pedagogies to support students learning within diverse and marginalized educational contexts. In doing so, I unpacked narratives and literature from broader contexts of teaching, and explore historical and contemporary complexity of teachers' work in diverse and marginalized contexts. Together, they represent five unique but interrelated contexts of education. These contexts are by no means comprehensive regarding their ability to capture the entirety of issues related to teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts or influences on teachers' decision-making, though each of the contexts illuminate meaningful themes and concepts central to the study and provide multiple contextual vantage points from which to view issues. Kathy Charmaz (2014) suggests that we grapple with our starting and standing points as we enter into constructing qualitative interpretations. Generally speaking, the contextual framework includes:

A Starting Point

I share professional experiences teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts. My experience as a new teacher got me interested in studying the problem of contextualization and the apparent disconnect between classroom curriculum and instruction and students' lives. The starting point included a two-part narrative about these experiences in two separate contexts and two different roles, one as a teacher and the other a teacher educator. These narratives serve as my entry point into this research. It also serves as a starting point for thinking about creating solutions.

Critical, Foundational, and Standing Points

The critical point explores the contemporary context of federal education policy and accountability reform, and specifically the implementation of Race to the Top (RTT, 2009).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

These reforms lead to the increased implementation of standardized pedagogy. This point speaks to a broad, but brief and clear description of the purpose, directives, and mechanisms of accountability reforms. This point is essential in laying the groundwork for being able to identify and interrogate their role and influence of policy in teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction.

The foundational point confronts controversial aspects of political, historical, ideological, and theoretical foundations associated with federal education policy and accountability reforms. Together, I argue that these foundations represent dubious values transmitted through a standardized and decontextualized approach to teaching and learning in diverse and marginalized contexts.

The review of literature focused on three different contextualized pedagogies (culturally relevant, critical, and place-based) designed to support diverse and marginalized student learning revealed historical, ideological, theoretical, and practical foundations that appeared antithetical to standardized pedagogy. The standing point explored the premises of divergent pedagogies, and in particular, ones that value the contextual uniqueness of students' lives by making curriculum and instruction relevant to students' cultural, socio-economic, and ecological life worlds.

Contextual Point

The description of the research setting includes information about unique historical, cultural, socio-economic, ecological, and policy aspects of the context. The contextual point makes a note of the special consideration for research in a setting that is both an indigenous educational context and a context explicitly targeted by federal reformers.

Analytical Methods

To make sense of teachers' work in relation to the contextual frame, my analytical framework relies on a combination of exploration and explanation, including both inductive, deductive, and abductive reasoning. The first analytical step uses procedures adapted from elements in constructivist grounded theory and the coding of qualitative research texts. Grounded theory analysis is among the most prevalent forms of qualitative analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Gibbs, 2008). The stages, questions, and procedures of grounded theory coding are heuristic devices for exploring social processes in a naturalistic setting (Charmaz, 2006; Gibbs, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Grounded theory is an ethical and responsible research method that allows for the reporting of interpretations based on the day-to-day language of a teacher's thinking about curriculum and instruction. With the complexity, professionalism, and tensions in teachers' work, it is necessary to explore and describe how teachers talk about their curriculum and instruction in their terms and through their words. The on-the-ground representations of teachers' decisions must be considered and contextualized before imparting any specific theoretical lenses on the interpretations. In these initial stages, I try to avoid being tied too strongly to one theory or concept, but rather explore gracefully from case to case, evidence to evidence; meanwhile being ethical and considerate and open to alternative constructions (Fenstermacher, 1994). As teachers know, the classroom is a nuanced place wherein singular moments multiple pedagogies may exist simultaneously, or perhaps, not at all. Additionally, some scholars suggest that a teacher's decisions in the classroom context has been found to be based upon their experiences and their social settings, as opposed to any deep, rich connections to academic and pedagogical theory (Zeichner & Tabachink, 1981).

These thematic explanations of teachers work provided an opportunity to ask further (and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

more meaningful) questions about differences within and among the different settings (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). From theoretical and critical perspectives, I was interested in whether or not aspects of the foundations of these differing pedagogical frameworks manifest in interpretations of teachers' decisions in the classroom. Looking at teachers' work from this critical perspective acknowledges aspects of power that arise from problematic historical and political realities and the uneven and discursive power dynamics that regulate the way teachers operate in classrooms (Giroux, 1983; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002; McLaren, 2003; Shields, 2012). While narrow goals of schooling associated with accountability reforms focus primarily on academic performance as a predictor of the economic viability of individuals, it is argued that these ideas should not be the sole foundation on which the purpose of education is built and the language of these ideas not be the primary language of the classroom (Burch, 2009; Lipman, 2004; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002).

The Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is related to teachers' classroom decisions as they relate to the foundations of pedagogy. For the purpose of this inquiry, *pedagogy* is defined as "any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another" (Watkins & Mortimore, 1999). I think the concept of deliberate design is useful to refer to pedagogies purposefully built to encourage specific outcomes. Insomuch, deliberately designed pedagogies, like all practices, emerge from the historical contexts, foundational ideologies, theoretical origins, and explicit purposes (Artiles, 2003; Gutierrez et al., 2000; Pacheco, 2010). Due to the range of foundations that contribute pedagogical frameworks, there are both explicit and implicit influences on a teacher's curriculum and instruction. In confronting the issues of power, this inquiry honors historical, political, cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological aspects of diverse

TEACHERS DECISIONS

and marginalized students' lives, as well as teachers who operate from perspectives that value them. With that said, teachers are autonomous social actors who enact aspects of a range of pedagogies in the classroom.

As the idea of "standardization" dominates approaches to curriculum and instruction, divergent pedagogies become less common or even irrelevant. The increase in focus around student performance on standardized measures has meant less contextualization of knowledge in the process of learning (Berliner, 2011). Narrowing teachers' work around standardized pedagogies and mechanisms, which focus intently on student performance on common academic objectives, has the potential to reduce opportunities for teachers to make their curriculum and instruction contextually relevant to students' lives. As schools and teachers are more responsible for demonstrating students' academic learning and achievement, thereby avoiding the punitive aspects of accountability, contextualized curriculum becomes less immediately valuable to the assurance of quality. Thus, the lack of contextualized pedagogy at the foundation of teachers' classroom work is significant. It is such because research suggests that contextualized pedagogies possess transformative power to create authentic educational experiences resulting in increased student engagement, inclusion of multiple worldviews, meaningful academic performances, and transformational social outcomes (Freire, 2000; Giroux, 1998, 2012; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp et al., 2000).

When the standardized mechanisms of accountability reform are operationalized in classrooms, they have the potential to narrow teachers' autonomy in choosing aspects of curriculum and instruction. Insomuch, they discursively shade teachers' perceptions of the value of their work in relationship to students' lives (Bartolome, 1994, 2004; Biesta et al., 2014; Biesta, 2010; Cochran-Smith, 2001). I argue that understanding these issues as they relate to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers' decisions contributes to our knowledge about the following four problematic aspects of accountability reforms: (a) Reforms do not value teachers as professionals; (b) Reforms restrict teachers' work and discursively guide their professional decisions; (c) Reforms have the potential to increase disconnects between the classroom and students' lives; and, (d) Teachers' knowledge, and use, of contextualized pedagogical practices is largely unknown.

Valuing Teachers' Decisions and Work

...[teaching] is perhaps the most complex, most challenging, and most demanding, subtle, nuanced, and frightening activity that our species has ever invented. (Shulman & Shulman, 2004, p. 504)

Researching teachers in public schools is difficult. Teachers are invaluable members of a professional community serving communities and individuals from all walks of life. At the ethical foundation of this inquiry is the acknowledgment that teachers are professionals who dedicate significant amounts of time, energy, and thought to classrooms and students. In reality, teaching as a professional action calls on very complex, artful, creative, personal, and intuitive thinking. Teachers' work is conducted under highly uncertain conditions, often changing from hour to hour, day to day, week to week, and year to year.

Teaching is often over-simplified by policy and policymakers as a routine task, and teachers as mediators of policy are often far removed from the places where policies develop. As such, it cannot be oversimplified and objectified as the depositing of knowledge into students' minds through scripted actions to be measured by standardized outcomes (McDonnell & Ellmore, 1987). Teaching is not solely following federal government policy directives that prescribe sometimes abstract and linear academic targets and skills leading to universal goals of college entrance or career attainment. While policy mechanisms administered by school sites

TEACHERS DECISIONS

influences teachers' work, teachers, are professionals responsible for making decisions about the use of curriculum and instruction relevant to student's lives (Diamond, 2007; Spillane & Burch, 2006).

For this reason, this inquiry acknowledges the role of the teacher as an autonomous social actor who makes decisions based on professional, meaningful, nuanced, and relevant perceptions. As professionals, teachers decide what is taught, how it's taught, and for what reasons. As reforms make their way to the classroom level and influence the educational experiences of students, teachers play the most important on-the-ground role. Their work is informed by governments and politicians who dream up purposes, goals, directives, and mechanisms to shape their work. The considerate teacher must take aspects of reform into account as they work with students in unique contexts. Analysis of teachers' decisions within curriculum and instruction reveal linkages to pedagogies of reform, as well as a variety of other reasons at the foundation of their work. Through their decisions and actions, teachers act alongside their policy context and students' lives, meanwhile actively constructing the purpose of education in classrooms for their student and themselves. In this way, teachers act as mediators between dominant federal policy, school administration, and the day-to-day instructional activities they provide to students in the classroom.

With all that said, teachers have very different concerns in their day-to-day work than researchers or policy makers do. In starting with a connection to teaching as a practice from the perspective of a teacher, I aim to bridge this knowledge gap. For the sake of research and relationships, it is necessary to remain as grounded as possible in actual classroom practice and throughout the inquiry. I do this because teachers are the professionals who made this research possible. They opened their classrooms and minds to share what they do, explained why they

TEACHERS DECISIONS

have chosen to do it, and discussed how they perceive their work as meaningful to students' lives. In order to stand alongside them as they share their practice, I also should be an explicit about my experiences, as well as my fallibility within that; and, I should communicate it clearly and openly.

Confronting Efforts to Reform Teachers' Professional Decisions

Standardized educational mechanisms, including universal standards, common objectives, target skills, scripted curriculums, and high-stakes-testing, are designed to constrain teachers' professional decisions and perceptions (Apple, 2007; Dougherty, 1991; Fang, 1996; Sleeter, 2008, 2009, 2012; Smith & Miller-Kahn, 2004; Wise et al., 1985). This powerful pedagogical framework has purposefully changed work done in schools (Meisels, 1989; Nichols et al., 2006; Orfield & Lee, 2006; Tharp et al., 2000; Wyatt, 2015). Reforms appear to reduce the purpose of teachers' work as means to produce student academic performance on standardized tests. (Ziechner, Payne & Brayko, 2012). To increase this performance, reforms have mandated that teachers use standardized mechanisms that amount to "cookie-cutter," "data-driven," and "prescriptive" curriculum and instruction (Ravitch, 2011, 2013; Sleeter, 2012).

As directives make their way down to the level of the classroom in the form of educational programs and practical mechanisms, they hold powerful influences over the curriculum and instruction delivered by teachers (McCarty et al., 2014). Reform initiatives focus on the regulation of school efforts to educate students in normalized ways (Burch, 2009; Kincheloe, 2007). These regulative efforts have converged on the work of teachers, primarily focusing curriculum and instruction, as the way to reform schools (Au, 2011; Bien, 2013; Biesta, 2009; Diamond, 2007; Lipman, 2004; Scribner, 2004). In doing so, accountability reforms have asserted themselves as the common-sense way of managing and regulating teachers' work done

TEACHERS DECISIONS

in public schools (Biesta, 2009; Berliner, 2009; Burch, 2009; Lipman, 2011; Sturges, 2015). The foundations of policy, in both concept and language, coincide with contemporary education policy that mandates the use of uniform educational mechanisms that influence the day-to-day work of teachers (Au, 2011; Rosenbusch, 2005; Spillane et al., 2002). With accountability reforms built upon questionable histories, ideologies, theories, and practices, it is worth interrogating whether the claims that federal policy provides direction for public schools by influencing teachers' decisions and perceptions and in particular those who are teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts (Evans & Davies, 2014; Kantor 1991). Meanwhile, scholars question what should constitute the purpose of education, what ideology and theory should be at the foundations of education, what pedagogy should be used by teachers to achieve what desired outcomes (Au, 2011; Deschenes, Cuban, & Tyack, 2001; Newell & Bellour, 2002).

Scholars argue that standardized mechanisms narrow teachers' work in a transreductionary way (Ball, 2003; Giroux, 1992; Hargraves & Goodson, 1996; Ravitch, 2013; Smyth, 2000). In this way, reformers are argued to have reduced teaching to a set of performances, research-based inputs, variable attributes, or technical practices that are "proven" to deliver the student academic performance as measured by standardized assessments (Ball, 2003; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Day et al., 2007; Ingersoll, 2009; Smith, 2005). Standardized mechanisms complicate how teachers decide on and perceive the relevance of their practices in relation to students lives (Bartolome, 1992; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Malsbary, 2015). Regulatory procedures associated with standardized approaches to curriculum and instruction have been argued to change the purpose of teachers' work (Bennett & Frow, 2008; Bien, 2013; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1999; Mueller, 1989; Thompson, 1991). In effect, reforms discursively influence teachers and change the culture of public institutions, thereby restructuring students'

TEACHERS DECISIONS

learning and meaning-making around relatively narrow constructions of the purpose of education (Bernstein, 1995; Carlson, 2005).

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Schools are Disconnected from Students' Lives

Standardized educational practices do little to engage and support the vested interest of the child in his or her life world, and may scare the student away. This sentiment appears lost on some powerful figures in U.S. government as is evidenced in the United States Department of Education report published just months before the most intrusive piece of federal government policy, Race to the Top (RTT), was enacted. The report was titled, "Great Expectations: Holding Ourselves and Our Schools Accountable." In this report, U.S. Secretary of Education, Margaret Spellings sang the praise of a prior educational report written in a different era. In fact, she framed her entire federal report on education using the ideas from an 1892 Committee of Ten report, authored by the Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris. Commissioner Harris,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

just three years earlier had written the introduction to the Bureau of Indian Affairs report that characterized Indians as lesser than, uncivilized, non-industrious, and as genetically and culturally inferior people. Harris went on to say that Indians required treatment for deficiency via a strong dose of civilization and Christian values to be delivered explicitly and uniformly through compulsory education (Prucha, 1990). In the Committee of 10 report, Harris endorsed the complete reform of public education to ensure on that was systematic and equal, in which all children “should be treated alike,” and “every subject should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil...no matter what the probable destination of that pupil may be” (USDOE, 2009).

In her report, Spellings (using Harris’s ideas as a foundation for her thinking) goes on to say that U.S. schools need to navigate away from ‘fad-like’ approaches to pedagogy that seek the achievement of authentic learning outcomes (USDOE, 2009). Instead, Spellings advocates that schools need to abandon the focus on relevancy and meaning to help students reach their potential academic achievement as measured by tests. Spellings, in favor of a more rigorously standardized approach, dismissed “meaning emphasis” and contextualized pedagogical practices as a “fetish” in education (USDOE, 2009). According to this logic, the same education for all students will have the effect of being a quality one, thereby setting and equal the playing field and providing all students an equal opportunity at success. In this vision of educational reform, federal efforts are directed towards the standardization of curriculum and instruction across contexts, classrooms, and students.

The standardized curriculum and instruction run the risk of being disconnected from student’s lives. Everyday classroom discourse includes students asking, “What’s this got to do with me?”, “What are we doing this for, anyway?” or “Why do we need to know this?” Teachers

TEACHERS DECISIONS

respond to such questions in rote terms, reminding students of the importance to perform well on later assessments, develop skills, make progress, and value completing tasks, including the all-too-familiar rationalizations about what they are doing and what they can expect to get out of it. Teachers might say, “This is a standard that you are responsible for learning/meeting,” “This one is going to be on the test,” “In order to get a good grade,” “When you get a job...,” “You need this for college,” among others. The common classroom discourse directly and indirectly communicates to students the meaning, relevance, and utility of learning. In this way, the language of the teacher has the potential to reveal the utility of their curriculum and instruction. Beyond these simplified terms, teachers also communicate a variety of other reasons that demonstrate the value of their curriculum and instruction, including various extrinsic or intrinsic rewards, the sequencing of learning, the state mandates, prior student experiences, or inquiries developed by the students.

Professional Learning for Divergent Pedagogies Addressing Contextual Realities

Standardized and contextualized pedagogies are explicitly built to support diverse and marginalized students, but these pedagogies are founded on nearly antithetical viewpoints. Due to federal influence, the different pedagogies appear in schools at different frequencies and to different degrees. The differences between standardized and contextualized pedagogies are problematic given that the mechanisms of accountability reforms are implemented in culturally nuanced and contextually rich settings. The implementation of standardized pedagogy across contexts goes against research on education from the socio-cultural perspective. The problem, according to some scholars and teachers, is that the increased standardization of curriculum and instruction neglects the interdisciplinary nature of knowledge and socio-contextual aspects of human diversity, in particular a student’s cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological environments

TEACHERS DECISIONS

(Biesta, Priestley, & Robison, 2014; Gay, 2002; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Lipka, 2002; Tharp, et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006). Scholars who acknowledge students' socio-cultural differences have argued that students' lives play an essential role in learning, and therefore, should play a role in the development of curriculum and instruction (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Demmert, 2001, Demmert & Towner, 2003; Gay, 2002; Gruenewald, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lipka, 2002; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006).

Contextualized pedagogy is seemingly less visible in public schools when compared to the dominant approach. Over the last 40 years, and as a rebuttal to the movement towards standardization, a variety of contextualized pedagogies have been designed, and found to be effective, in supporting diverse and marginalized student learning (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Tharp et al., 2000; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Yamauchi, 2003). The literature on culture-based, critical, and place-based pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning is founded on different origins, ideas, theories, and practices. The divergent set of literature arises from challenges made to a history of public schools as institutions of assimilation and hegemony. Contextualized approaches to pedagogy rely on honest confrontations of the historical realities that characterize the development of social policy in the United States. Additionally, the divergent literature base comes from scholarship associated with a variety of socio-cultural perspectives on learning.

Standardized pedagogies neglect a multiplicity of factors in a student's life that have the potential to support or hinder their academic achievement (Berliner, 2005; Berliner et al., 2014; Coleman, 1966; Deschenes, Cuban, & Tyack, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Jenks, 1972; Moll et al., 1992; Thomson, 2002). This fails to acknowledge substantial research to suggest that

TEACHERS DECISIONS

contextualized pedagogies founded on valuing a student's culture, socioeconomic status, and ecological relationships, contribute to learning, academic success, and educational attainment (Au & Jordan, 1981; Deschenes, et al., 2001; Gay, 2000, 2001, 2002; Gonzalez, Moll & Amanti, 2006; Lee & Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; Moll et al. 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Yamauchi, 1993; 2003). When examined through historical contexts, standardized pedagogies are disconnected from, or disregard, students' lives in the diverse and marginalized context (Deschenes et al., 2001). I argue alongside others who claim that standardized pedagogies undervalue meaningful connections between the curriculum and student's lives (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Nieto, 2004; Sobel, 2004; Ravitch, 2012).

The application of contextualized approaches in the classroom uses the students' lived experiences to empower diverse and marginalized students by actively engaging with the cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological knowledge and complexity of their own lives. Furthermore, this engagement is meant to support students to authentically learn about, comprehend, and transform social issues present in their lives and communities. The foundations of contextualized pedagogies are divergent from the standardized approaches in that they operate from the belief that public schools have been historically oppressive and hegemonic towards the lives of culturally diverse and economically marginalized students (Adams, 1995; Apple, 2004; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Goodlad, 1984; Kincheloe, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2015; Spring, 2003, 2008; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). In what amounts to counter-hegemonic actions, contextualized pedagogies generate meaning and purpose in ideological and theoretical constructs that value the role of students' cultural, socioeconomic, and/or ecological life in the learning process. Contextualized pedagogies advocate for the use of practical strategies of curriculum and instruction based on the relevance and relationships

TEACHERS DECISIONS

between learning and students' lives (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Demmert, 2001, Demmert & Towner, 2003; Gay, 2002; Gruenewald, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lipka, 2002; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006). Research on contextualized pedagogies suggests that they are effective in supporting diverse and marginalized students to reach authentic and academic learning, as well as transformational social goals (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi, 2003).

Outline of Subsequent Chapters

The following provides a brief description of subsequent chapters and how the chapters are connected across the inquiry.

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Inquiry

In this chapter, I have explained issues related to the question: How am I framing the inquiry into teachers' decisions within curriculum and instruction, what are the ways that I use to explore the problem, and why did I do so?

Chapter 2: My Narrative Entry in the Inquiry - A Starting Point

In this chapter, I ponder the question: As a researcher and professional, how do my experiences build conceptual understanding of the issue, frame how I am looking at it, and why I am confronting it? I share two autobiographical narratives from education in diverse and marginalized contexts as the starting part to my inquiry. These are narratives derived from my experiences as a new teacher and as a new teacher of teachers. They allude to meaningful concepts and tensions in the research, in particular the ways in which my preparation, knowledge

TEACHERS DECISIONS

of context, education policy, and questionable narratives come together to create barriers to the contextualization of knowledge in the classroom.

Chapter 3: A Review of Federal Education Policy - A Critical Point

Chapter 4: A Review of Literature on Education Policy - A Foundational Point

Chapter 5: A Review of Literature on Contextualized Pedagogy - A Standing Point

Chapter 6: Context of the Research

In the chapters three, four, five, and six, I consider the organization and implementation of federal education policy designed and implemented and its questionable foundations resulting in standardized approaches to pedagogy. In response to increased standardization of curriculum and instruction, I review literature from divergent and contextualized pedagogies. Finally, I consider standardized and contextualized realities with the context of the research. The contexts associated with teaching in diverse and marginalized spaces have inherent tensions that guide this inquiry. The meaningful understanding of complex social processes can be arrived at by considering the diverse historical, political, cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological nuances that exist in school contexts (Kincheloe, 2001; Morawski, 1997). Each chapter further illustrates my critical perspective and deepens understanding of the important pedagogical tensions. Together, these chapters serve as authentic entry, critical, standing, foundational, and contextual points on which this inquiry is founded.

Chapter 7: Overarching Research Project: Highlighting Effective Teaching Strategies

(HETS)

In this chapter, I explore the question: Recognizing the contextual factors, how did I approach developing field texts and research materials that provides a window for looking at the issues? Chapter seven focuses on data collection, and the design of a project to collect field

TEACHERS DECISIONS

texts. This includes aspects of development, securing access, fieldwork, and organization of texts into technological locations that facilitate transparency as well as public and critical review. As this research is situated in a contemporary diverse and marginalized space, I acknowledge the reciprocity aspect of this research and the value of field texts to other researchers, policy makers, administrators, teachers, and students.

Chapter 8: Research Study Design

In this chapter, I am guided by the question: What techniques did I use to analyze the field texts to generate interpretations, claims, and conclusions, and for what reasons? I provide the structure of the interpretative analysis, including: stages, steps, procedures, and interpretations. These processes illuminate aspects of teacher interviews and generate conceptual interpretations, thematic models, theoretical claims, and critical realizations originating in teachers' perspectives. I go through analytical processes of memos, coding, interpreting, modeling, critically analyzing, reporting, and dialoguing on the research materials derived from the teachers' interviews. My approach begins with inductive and grounded thinking before arriving at theoretical and critical questions of these grounded interpretations. I also include reflexive member checking strategies in a conversation with teachers about my interpretations. Throughout the process, I use specific procedures language to talk about the process of inquiry. I use tables, concepts, and their frequencies as a heuristic device to consider which types of decisions appear more prevalent in each of the categories. I use the prominent conceptual trends founded on teachers' decisions to guide my theoretical and critical interpretations.

Chapter 9: Findings about Teachers' Decisions on Curriculum and Instruction

In this chapter I use this question as a provocation: Given the field texts, what are my grounded interpretations, critical claims, and teachers' conclusions on teachers' decisions in the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

“Era of Accountability”? Chapter nine is a presentation of interpretations gained from the analysis. I organize the interpretations as a process of asking research questions leading to the development of conceptual, theoretical, critical and reflexive understanding of teachers’ decisions. The presentation includes categories, themes, theoretical aspects, and critical dimensions for teachers’ decisions on curriculum and instruction.

Chapter 10: Discussion and the Significance of the Study

In the final chapter, I come back to the significance of the study by generating some broad conclusions about why the critical realizations are important given the contexts that inform and influence teachers work, and specifically address the barriers to the contextualization of curriculum and instruction with consideration for cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological aspects of students’ lives. Furthermore, I suggest implications and opportunities for future research.

CHAPTER 2: MY NARRATIVE ENTRY IN THE INQUIRY - A STARTING POINT

What kind of stories do progressive researchers and scholars tell about their work in public school sites? To even raise such a question, of course, is to call into question the binary that separates research narratives from stories, as fact is separated from fiction. If educational researchers are storytellers of a particular sort, this does not necessarily mean that their stories are deliberate distortions and falsifications of events or fictions that take creative liberty with reality. But educational researchers are storytellers to the extent that they are actively engaged in producing certain truths about what goes on in schools and other educational sites, and framing events according to particular discourses or interpretive lenses. They are also storytellers in that discourse is a repository of cultural stories and narratives. (Carlson, 2005, p. 21)

Research and analysis about classroom practice and teacher mindsets holds particular value to me for one key reason: I was a classroom teacher and have worked with young people for over 20 years. I have taught a number of subjects at different levels of K-12 public schools (primarily English-language arts and social studies) and coached range of sports. Because of my range of experiences, I value the day-to-day work of teachers, and I value my present responsibilities as an instructor of pre-service and in-service teachers. I remember what it was like when, as a new teacher, I was working in a new classroom context and was responsible to figure out the culture of the school and community in ways that supported my classroom decisions. For this reason, I use narrative examples as a way to properly ground this inquiry in the work teachers who are required to navigate complex educational and community landscapes.

As such, considering my own practice and providing proper contextualization for my work is an essential part of this inquiry. Charmaz (2006) suggests that we examine our own

TEACHERS DECISIONS

beginnings into the research process. As such, my personal narratives are an ethical and grounded way for me to navigate entry into the study of teachers' decisions. I use my narratives to identify critical parts of my experiences as they relate to thinking about and setting up the research as stories bring into focus my time as a teacher in diverse and marginalized contexts and some of the realizations and thought processes I went through while trying to be an effective professional. I pay particular attention to the process of contextualization of curriculum and instruction and what might be some of the barriers to this process and locate how problematic aspects of my knowledge, thinking, and practice affected my time in the classroom. In particular, I point out some of the ways my own teacher preparation program was not adequate for what I was tasked to do. This critical reflection opens up opportunities for the transformation of my understanding of how policy, pedagogy, and practice operate in classrooms with regards to students lives in diverse and marginalized contexts.

Narratives as a Way to Share Positionality

Research in diverse and marginalized educational contexts requires the researcher to remain sensitive to multiple considerations, including questions of who am I, why am I studying this, and how do I view the context of the research. These narratives serve as one piece of the puzzle in my research. Through my stories, I try to present views that complicate my understanding of my work and appropriate spaces for the lives of students and community members who live in the places I work. I feel this is important because I am not from the communities that I am writing about, and while I have not told the entirety of my thoughts and experiences here, I do think what I share is a thoughtful and ethical way to ensure I provide proper context and a critical lens for my own work, as well as being useful in a conversation about teachers' decisions in diverse and marginalized contexts.

Narrative as an Ethical and Useful Entry Point for Research

Research in diverse and marginalized spaces requires an ethical approach to inquiry that "characteristically begins with the researcher's autobiographically-oriented narrative associated with the research puzzle" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p.40). Additionally, scholars suggest that there are expectations for narrative entry within certain research contexts (Kaomea, 2001). As such, I offer narratives from two different contexts: my time as a middle school teacher and my work preparing pre-service teachers, each having unique contexts that inform my understanding of teachers' decisions.

This chapter stands to bridge a gap that Connelly & Clandinin (1990) characterize as a dichotomy between an individual and a researcher when they note, "People by nature lead storied lives and tell stories of those lives, whereas narrative researchers describe such lives, collect and tell stories of them, and write narratives of experience" (p.2). In this inquiry, I am not solely an individual, teacher, or researcher—I am all three. While I am not conducting a narrative inquiry, I am using narrative examples to unpack my experiences and professional life, and to introduce concepts to this research. The inclusion of my narrative serves as a way to avoid a traditional scientific approach to entering into research by using a fully formulated theoretical lens from the outset (Clandinin, 2006; Hargraves, 1984). As a researcher, the spaces and places in which I am working require respect and acknowledgment, particularly given my previous work within them. As Connelly and Clandinin (1990) note:

Negotiating entry is commonly seen as an ethical matter framed in terms of principles that establish responsibilities for both researchers and practitioners. However, another way of understanding the process as an ethical matter is to see it as a negotiation of a shared narrative unity. (p. 3)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

This chapter is written to help establish a "shared narrative unity" between myself as a human, teacher, and researcher and the teachers who have chosen to participate (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). I share my experience as a novice teacher to frame my thinking and decisions (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). I use narrative examples because teaching (as a whole) is far too personal and complex to articulate using any one singular experience, lens, theory, framework, data set, or research orientation. My narratives provide an ontological and ethical position that teaching is complex and challenging (Clandinin & Caine, 2012; Greene, 1993; Saleh, Menon & Clandinin, 2014). Additionally, narratives provide insight into how teachers and researchers communicate around issues of practice (Bien, 2013; Goodson 1994, 2003). My struggle to become an effective and relevant teacher in marginalized educational contexts during the era of accountability opens up spaces for critical interpretation and reflexive examination (Goodson, 2014).

Furthermore, Freema Elbaz-Luwisch (1997) suggests that we analyze narratives for their perceived meaning and utilize narrative in order to explain social phenomena and processes. These stories help characterize issues about teaching and learning nascent in my experiential setting (Clandinin & Connelly, 1990). Within the first narrative, I include some key understandings about my own educational process, such as my naïveté towards the context in which I was working, lack of preparation to teach in that context, and emergent efforts to make relevant connections between my curriculum and instruction and my students' lives. My introduction to the initial narrative is not meant to be sensational, but rather an honest representation of the reality I faced as a new teacher in a challenging educational context. I share these as the social realities many teachers confront in this context and, more importantly, as the social realities that confront their students each and every day.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In the second narrative, I also share how I found myself in an unfamiliar context, and this time with an even more professional responsibility in public education. The second story is about critical reflections on problems present in my previous experiences that appeared to persist in the new. In the new context, there was two important caveats: As I gained more responsibility, I was located closer to the power structure of school and teacher preparation administrators, and I was working in an indigenous context with a colonial history and resultant post-colonial reality. In the narrative, I share examples of rhetorical perspectives from powerful actors that I perceive to be problematic given their positionality, the history, and the context of this research.

The First Narrative: Teaching in a Marginalized Space

Many years ago, I began working as a middle school teacher in one of the largest urban school districts in the United States. Though I worked across different classroom settings, my primary role was as a resource teacher with students who needed academic support in English/Language Arts and Social Studies. At that time, the district was one of the lowest performing in the country. The community was racially segregated and ethnically isolated—100% of the students were African-American. The community was economically marginalized as characterized by concerning socio-economic indicators of health and wellness, including the 100% of the students in the school who received free and reduced lunch (FRL) (Commission on African American Affairs, 2016; DCPS, 2013). The school community included 20% unemployment (higher for males 15-29) and many families who received comprehensive financial support from government agencies, including subsidized or free housing and other welfare assistance. There were noticeable amounts of economic poverty, with more than a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

quarter of all families living below the poverty line of (approximately \$25,000 for a family of 5) (DCFPI, 2016).

The students in my classroom were born between years 1990-1992. This was the height of the crack-cocaine epidemic. As a result, the neighborhood was an epicenter of drug activity and violence. The city was colloquially known as the "murder capital" of the United States. Homicides rates had increased 75% in the five years prior, peaking at a record 450-plus murders in 1991. Social and economic factors contributed to these issues and were reflected in multiple social health statistics that included high rates of diabetes, concerns for mental health, teen pregnancy, incarceration, and the participation of community members in the penal system, and particularly African American male youth.

The community profile is meaningful because community factors can contribute to challenges in students' school and academic lives. For example, students who experience violence are less likely to succeed in school. This occurred when a student from my school had an older brother who was murdered in the high school cafeteria few blocks up the street. Three of the students I taught were injured by gun violence. Multiple students lost a parent or guardian to gun violence or lost parental support due to homicide or incarceration. One morning a student of mine said, "C, how come they shot this man outside my house?" He was referring to a yet to be discovered murder victim outside the front door of his apartment. The social challenges I speak of not only affected young men in the community, but young women as well. I had two pregnant twelve-year-old girls in my classroom.

These are some of the more notable descriptions that I use to introduce the community that I worked in and usually when people ask me about my experiences in teaching. With that said, it is important to note that I was not from this community. As a young, White male raised

TEACHERS DECISIONS

primarily in a rural, working-class community, my experiences and world views were very different from those of my students. As such, some of how I initiate a conversation about my experience includes the critical affronts to my senses, and some of what I share are contextual nuances that an outsider could understand. My reflections begin with problematic aspects of the communities in which I am talking about, contextual realities that my students faced and the contextual realities that my curriculum and instruction ended up engaging with. Though my critical orientation to this context could be considered problematic in and of itself, I do not explicitly rectify my perspectives. Instead I bring my perspective to forefront to be transparent with those who would take up issue and challenge my constructions. I think they should. I am want to make it clear that as a researcher, and as a teacher, I am open to that critical and reflexive conversation.

Academic Issues

The social challenges that I describe are insightful for understanding academic problems. Students in my class were not prepared for middle school reading and writing. In fact, very few of the students in the school were performing on grade-level as evidenced by standardized test scores. A majority of students were one grade-level or more behind in reading. According to current annual standardized testing (after more than 17 years of accountability reform), 0% of students from the school I worked in were exceeding expectations in English Language Arts (ELA) and Mathematics (on a scale of 1, not meeting expectations to 5, exceeding expectations). Only 1% of the school's students met academic expectations in these subject areas, while 99% of students fell into the scaled categories of approaching, partially meeting, or not meeting expectations (DCPS, 2017). Overall, last year more than 90% of all students only partially met or did not meet expectations on standardized tests for ELA and Math (DCPS, 2017).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Unfortunately, these statistics are compounded by the fact that many of the students in the school are identified as needing individualized academic support or special education services. Across the school, approximately 35% of the students were eligible to receive special education services—including a majority of the students for whom I was responsible for teaching. Many of the students in my classroom were eligible for special education services based on what were considered mild to moderate disabilities, ranging from speech and language impairment, specific learning disorder (i.e. dyslexia), emotional and behavioral challenges, and mental retardation.

Overall, the complexity of the social and academic challenges complicated the school's (and my) ability to provide support services in appropriate, relevant, and material ways. A lack of appropriate services affected and overlapped with other realities such as many students missing significant amounts of school for a variety of reasons characterized by chronic absenteeism. In the feeder high school, more than 90% of the students miss more than 10% of the school days (DCPS, 2015). These rates of attendance are complicated by high suspension rates and social responsibilities and challenges. Poor attendance was particularly problematic for students who needed the most support.

The First Thing

The introductory discussion of the challenges present in the community are an opportunity to set up my story in the classroom. Though we often talk about diverse and marginalized contexts in terms of what is missing or problematic in social and economic terms, I think it is important to complicate the idea of what else is missing in these contexts. On my first day of school, my knowledge of contextual factors (and, as a result, my role in understanding them as the teacher) were immediately challenged. The extent to which I was prepared— or

TEACHERS DECISIONS

perhaps, unprepared — with meaningful knowledge and the position from which to make meaningful connections to my students' lives became glaringly evident. Reflection on this singular point is salient throughout this inquiry and in my career.

Before I entered the classroom for the first time, I was nervous and pensive about my role and responsibility with students. That said, I was committed to doing the hard work of helping students learn and achieve. In my naive self-assuredness, I remember feeling as if my knowledge, commitment, and personality were the important variables in student learning. I had thought about the wide range of contextual factors in students' lives and knew that they contributed to challenges in students' daily realities, but I did not think too deeply about my relationship to those contexts or the relationship of those contexts to the process of learning. At least initially, I certainly did not think about how my lack of knowledge about those cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological contexts factored into my teaching. As a young, White male, I did not live in, nor grow up near this community. I had never lived in an impoverished urban community. I had never lived in a neighborhood subject to regular gun violence, or in a neighborhood where many community members were unemployed. While growing up, I had attended public schools in working class communities where academic excellence was by no means common, but neither was significant amounts of academic failure. Still, what I am about to share is a jarring and critical juxtaposition to my narrative description of the community and very real awakening that I had to endure as an educator.

My First Day

On my first day of school, the students and teachers were called to assembly in the auditorium. I simply assumed the principal would be sharing an opening day speech—you know...setting the values, expectations, and ground rules for the students and the school year;

TEACHERS DECISIONS

reminding students and teachers of important school policy and to be on their best behavior, etcetera, etcetera. What actually happened next, however, had certainly never crossed my mind.

For the most part, students were seated and were excitedly talking with one another. Most teachers stood in the aisles in proximity to their students. I stood in the back of the auditorium with a couple of new teachers, the social worker, and the school police officer. There were nearly 600 people in the auditorium. All but four of the people in the room were African-American, and I was one of those four.

Rather than the principal starting the protocol, he stood off to the side. A veteran teacher approached the podium and lifted her hands in what appeared to a gesture to prepare the audience. "Please join us in the singing of the national anthem." I just assumed it was going to start with "Oh say can you see..." but as the auditorium began to sing, I was stopped in my thoughts. I immediately recognized my assumptions were wrong. Not only did I did not know the first words of the song, I did not know *any* of the words to the song that everyone else in the auditorium was singing. In fact, I had never heard that song before. It was not until later when I got up the courage to ask someone, that I found out it was "Lift Every Voice and Sing," what is commonly referred to as the Black National Anthem.

Upon reflecting on my first day experience, I immediately approached my role in the school more cautiously because even though I was charged with educating students, I did not know the first thing about being a part of this community. I had a great deal to learn. I became humbled and even more tentative about my surroundings; and, I was also struck by an interesting paradox. I had been recruited as a teacher, broker, and provider of knowledge and intellectual steward to help struggling students find academic success which would allow them to become more knowledgeable about their world. Yet, I did not know the first thing about common

TEACHERS DECISIONS

protocol and knowledge that existed in their community. Overall, I did not know very much about the world of my students. This shook my sensibilities, and in particular, I questioned the authority and righteousness afforded to me by my Whiteness, education, position, and power.

This singular, yet stark, experience opened my mind and challenged me to be both reflective and reflexive on preconceived notions I had, what my role was, and what I did not know about the community where I was teaching. Shortly thereafter, I began seeking out more opportunities to visit neighborhood communities and speak to students, staff, and families. I began listening very carefully to what was being said, how it was being said, and what was being talked about across the community. I began questioning my knowledge and values and whether their transmission was appropriate for my students. I began questioning if I was coming from a position of cultural imposition and setting misguided expectations about what constitutes meaningful life goals, valuable knowledge, and successful academic performance. I wondered if I would be able to help build capacity and knowledge that would be useful for students. Most of all, I wondered if I could be effective in supporting my students' learning.

My First Classroom

I was brought in as a teacher to serve in a hard-to-staff position, but was underprepared. I did not feel as if I had the professional expertise and localized knowledge to implement effective instruction for student learning. I did not know very much about curriculum development, nor did I have the experience or skills to use the scripted curriculum. I viewed my professional situation from the perspective of what the community lacked or the ways in which it was different or deficient. As things unfolded and I became more knowledgeable, I was looking at my role as the teacher differently.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Initially, I wanted to make a difference in the lives of my students. I believed education and learning were important to students' lives. I was somewhat naively self-important and thought that my students' futures were directly related to the knowledge I was going to impart, my instructional practices, and my ability to motivate students to learn. While I was interested in engaging students, developing relationships, creating a positive and safe emotional environment, and designing learning activities that most effectively supported student learning, as with most new teachers, I was not entirely certain about *how* to do this. Regardless, I was almost solely responsible for making decisions about my curriculum and instruction. The most influential perspective on my day-to-day instruction of students was my own—neither my students nor members of the community provided me guidance.

My alternate-route-to-certification program education and training had not prepared me to be an effective teacher. My six-week intensive summer training program was relatively new organization and lacked a well-developed method of coaching, leaving me with rudimentary understanding of classroom management and instructional strategies, let alone the nuances of Individualized Education Plans and collaborative team meetings. I had few practical skills in working with struggling learners and I knew little about working with students from challenging contexts. I did not have any intellectual or cultural brokerage to guide or mentor my knowledge and thinking about the community I was teaching. I was not informed about the singing of “Lift Every Voice and Sing”, whether by society or through training. Knowing what I know now, I realize that I had little more than positive energy and a strong conviction.

I realize that my experience is common among beginning teachers. This is especially true for those who are brought from outside the context where they teach. Few beginning teachers have extensive knowledge of teaching in a marginalized context and appear to struggle

TEACHERS DECISIONS

with teaching the wide range of academic levels and mediating social issues that manifest in the classroom. Beginning teachers also lack the time or knowledge to understand and effectively implement the instructional and curricular resources provided by the school (when provided at all). Additionally, in-house instructional support for teachers did not exist. In my time at the school, I never received a professional learning opportunity that focused on the development of a particular pedagogical skill set to support my students. Curriculum texts, guides, and supports were often outdated, non-existent, or of the scripted curriculum variety where test-prep packages had been authorized by the central district office. There was little to no support in how to use these materials or how they could be adapted to our students or context. These aspects of curriculum and instruction were complicated by the school's high teacher attrition and turnover. In my first year, ten out of the approximately forty teachers were new to the school.

My First Critical Reflections

My experiences drove me to reflection and critique. I began to analyze my perspectives and experiences to understand my role as it related to social inequity in the educational environment. One of the primary concerns was a lack of interest or perceived relevance of students' educational experiences, as presented by the curriculum and instruction, to their lives. It was clear that part of my work was to create and develop this connection for my students. In my undergraduate and graduate studies, I came into contact with academics and scholars that kept sharing key concepts and constructs from both critical pedagogy and issues surrounding diverse and marginalized communities. I began to think deeply about the social issues of colonization, historical marginalization, cultural oppression, socioeconomic inequality, degradation of ecological spaces, and dispossession of homelands. Originally, my thoughts came from the exposure I had to stories focusing primarily on issues of class and race from

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Ralph Waldo Emerson's *Invisible Man* (1952), Jonathan Kozol's *Savage Inequalities* (1991), Mike Rose's *Lives on the Boundary* (1989), Bowles and Gintis' *Schooling in Capitalist America* (1976), Jay McLeod's *Ain't No Making It* (1987), Paul Willis *Learning to Labour* (1977), and my thought process became more complicated as I entered into an exploration of the construction of identity, the formation of self in relation to society, and the naming of the ideological structures used as tools of oppression. These ideas evolved from James Baldwin's *Notes of a Native Son* (1955), Franz Fanon's *Black Skin, White Masks* (1967), David Wallace Adams' *Education for Extinction* (1995), Michael Apple's *Educating the "Right" Way* (2001), Wub-e-ke-niew's *We Have the Right to Exist* (1995), and Michel Foucault's *Discipline and Punish* (1977), among many, many others.

Among all these texts, one in particular that stood out to me— Paulo Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (originally published in 1970). When I read this book, it is as if ideas in my mind finally had somewhere to sit, someone to connect with, and somewhere to be articulated in well-developed theory. This text forced me to reflect on my commitment to transform the current social inequity that I was witnessing and how that could be done. Upon reflection, I could not shake the thought that individuals need to begin the work by first transforming their own worlds and on their own terms. As a teacher, this meant I would need to provide students with opportunities to name their own worlds, on their own terms or the terms of their social community, and construct the value of education and learning for themselves. I was seeking an active role in creating the educational spaces that would humanize my work and their education. In the humanization process, I thought about historical subjugations, and in relationship to the origins of knowledge and the value of constructing ideas about the world from the perspective of the community and students. I thought about my role in what Freire calls a *false generosity* and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

prescription which kindly support the oppressed to seek opportunities and perceptions that are linked the oppressors' construction of humanity. In avoiding a mere imposition of my ideas and construction on my students and their choices in their world, I would need to empower my students to become more critically aware of their own realities, as well as the critical realities that existed in the city which influenced their lives. As Freire notes (1978);

They are at one and the same time themselves and the oppressor whose consciousness they have internalized. The conflict lies in the choice between being wholly themselves or being divided; between ejecting the oppressor within or not ejecting them; between human solidarity or alienation; between following prescriptions or having choices; between being spectators or actors; between acting or having the illusion of acting through the action of the oppressors; between speaking out or being silent, castrated in their power to create and re-create, in their power to transform the world. This is the tragic dilemma of the oppressed which their education must take into account. (p. 48)

As I challenged my practice in terms of its falseness and challenged the curricular and instructional mechanisms prescribed to me by the school, I found it unethical to simply regard academic and social challenges of my students in terms of deficiencies. It would be wrong to define the world in terms of what they did not know or could not do. Therefore, I interrogated the foundations of my work, the curriculum and instruction that I was provided by the school, and the impact of policy and administrative decisions, which appeared to me to be lacking an understanding of the context of the classroom and the context of my students' lives, not the other way around.

I focused my attention on my role as the teacher in facilitating learning in terms of connections rather than these disconnects. I thought deeply about aspects of my training in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teaching and pedagogy and my growing respect for local knowledge, including my students' culture, socioeconomic challenges, and ecological realities. I became able to see some of the problems associated with outside imposition: my lack of experience as a teacher, my lack of knowledge of pedagogy, and my lack of understanding of the meaningful contexts surrounding my students' lives. At this time, I began to see these disconnects from a more holistic perspective and as a set of influences connected to my lack of ability to make meaningful connections to my students through my curriculum and instruction.

As I acknowledged my own critical shortcomings, I was able to start changing my practice by choosing to create curriculum and instruction relevant to my students' lives. Though slightly hesitant because of the expectations of the time and my lack of experience, I stopped considering the standards that I needed to post on the wall or the standardized tests that my students would have to take (especially because I had no evidence that anything I was doing was having a profound effect).

I focused on my approach to teaching, and relevant teaching, by transforming the curriculum and texts provided to me by the school and district. The texts appeared to have been chosen by someone who likely knew nothing about the context I was teaching in. As I leaned on critical pedagogy, I began to think more deeply about my role in the academic aspects of my students' lives and experiences, especially the fact that I needed to facilitate a connection between the academics and their understanding of their own world, as opposed to me sharing knowledge and how to succeed in the world that I, or the text, system, or test was bound to. So, I began to incorporate more aspects of my students' culture, socioeconomic realities, and relevant ecology into my curriculum and instruction. As I did so, I saw an increase in student

TEACHERS DECISIONS

engagement. We had significantly more dialogue once this shift occurred and, as a novice teacher, I could only assume this meant more learning.

As I continued to examine my shortcomings and my practice with a critical eye, one of the first things I became aware of was the ways in which my students engaged with the curriculum. The curriculum materials seemed lacking, specifically lacking in connections to my students' academic, cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological lives. Few of my curricular materials were leveled for a range of academic skills or included scaffolded concepts to support emergent learners. Very few of the materials had language and visual texts that reflected the ethnic and cultural foundations of the community in which I taught. Much of the language in the text was unfamiliar to my students. My students spoke mostly in a localized form of what some scholars have acknowledged as Black-English, African-American Vernacular English, or Ebonics (Delpit, 1988, 1995, 2002). The curriculum materials did not appear to address or discuss any of the socio-economic issues facing the community. In this way, the materials and I had a common bond: we did not entirely connect to the lives of my students.

As I became more comfortable with teaching and the context, I eventually started to change my curriculum. Prior to that, though, I had several experiences with the curriculum that neglected the contextual lives of my students. For example, one English lesson from the school issued textbook required the students to read a short story passage about a group of young boys camping, followed by some multiple choice and short answer questions about the text. It was similar to an exercise that they might encounter on a standardized exam. I thought it would be best to guide the students through the story, stopping at the appropriate times to work on the skills required to accurately comprehend the questions being asked in the assessment. While I was reading the passage aloud with my students, I saw a number of blank faces. So, I asked the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

class, "Has anyone ever been camping?" No one raised their hand. Most had never been in a rural setting.

In the classroom, it seemed to me that their lack of knowledge of the context became a barrier for their engagement in the intellectual tasks necessary to reach the learning outcomes. But, whose fault was this? Where is the deficiency in this case? Was it with students who had never been camping? Or rather is the curriculum deficient? In this example, my students lacked content knowledge, experiences, feelings, or a level of interest about camping in the classroom. They had never experienced the frustrations of setting up a tent in the dark, telling of the proverbial ghost stories, or sitting by the fire and roasting marshmallows. I tried to thoroughly describe the experience but my students still looked at me with blank expressions on their faces. So, even though the knowledge required to answer questions leading to their learning comprehension could be described as "in the text," my students' minds were not. They lacked the skills and context to fully grasp the reading comprehension elements of the story. No matter how hard I tried to explain what the experience of camping was like, it just did not appear to register. My ability to share these experiences as the professional educator were not enough to help bridge the gap.

Like most places, students' conversations were based on their experiences. From the lens of critical theory, the curriculum materials I was provided contained few, if any, features of language or situations present in the students' lives or mentions of urban, African-American cultural perspectives, including a lack of curriculum that addressed the social and economic challenges being faced by the students, including lives in ethnic isolation and high poverty. There was no mention of social and health problems, drugs, incarceration, violence, or abuse, or frankly any other African-American narratives outside of curriculum texts that were

TEACHERS DECISIONS

inaccessible to my students reading levels. Many of the students lived in government subsidized project housing, so none of the materials recognized the geographical or ecological area in which my students lived. It was as if their lives were not represented in the curriculum at all.

And, more to the point, beyond historical examples in social studies texts, there were not materials that included positive and contemporary stories of “blackness”, nuances of black identity, stories of African-American excellence, and no instructional guides explicitly approached cultural aspects of the community in terms of normalized communication styles, thinking, or worldviews. As a result, I believe that my students learning demonstrated not only a gap in the content knowledge presented in the curriculum and instruction (and represented on the tests), but they lacked of contextual understanding of what the curriculum was talking about, the reasons why they should care about it, or ways to make sense of the knowledge that was being transferred.

Therefore, what I saw was a curriculum and instruction that resulted in low student engagement. Low engagement appeared to present a significant challenge to student learning. That said, it was not as if I perceived my students as disengaged human beings who lacked energy for making sense of the world, just in relation to a curriculum in which they were not included in its development or purpose. I have always remembered being struck by a juxtaposed realization that out of the classroom or in informal settings, my students appeared to be generally energetic, happy, growing, positive, inquisitive, and cognitively aware of their surroundings. Yet, in the formal setting of the classroom, these strengths often disappeared. They became disengaged, sad, restless, anxious and, at times, problematic. They became tired and disaffected. And, much to my chagrin, I had a role (a big role) and responsibility in that.

Making Practical Changes for Relevance

I began seeking to create meaningful, engaging, and relevant activities for my students. Studies show that having prior knowledge about a subject increases the ability to comprehend text. Recht and Leslie (1988) found that student's prior knowledge factored significantly in their ability to be successful in answering questions of reading comprehension. The research study was designed around a lesson about baseball. The researchers studied students who had both limited or thorough knowledge of the context of baseball. The researchers separated students into 4 learner groups. These included: students who had a high reading ability and high knowledge of baseball, high reading ability and low knowledge of baseball, low reading ability and high knowledge of baseball, and low reading ability and low knowledge of baseball. The interpretations suggested that students with a high knowledge of the context of the content were able to perform measurably better than students with low knowledge of context, regardless of their reading ability. Recognizing that reading ability, or reading skill sets, had less to do with academic performance than knowledge of the context of the content is a significant and salient point to consider in thinking about my experiences and approaches to teaching and throughout this inquiry. Often times, we are taught via methods courses in teacher preparation programs to focus on the development of academic skills independent of the context of the content.

As I turned to my instructional practice, though, I continued to have questions: If I am going to have my students reach these isolated and abstract academic skills, what curriculum and instruction are best? My first step was to interrogate how language, culture, and environmental context all played a role in how curriculum became disconnected from the student's lives. Whether it had to do with where and who created the curricular materials, how old it was, whose knowledge is in the curriculum materials, what purpose does the material serve, how is the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

knowledge and information applied in real life, or how it was disconnected from the lived experiences of my students?

I began to do my best locate the learning in relationship to my student's lived context thereby creating relevance as an opportunity to construct meaningful content and skill development. I began to ground my teachings in the lived context of my students, their lives, their language, their culture, and their neighborhood. For several months, I would take some curriculum materials that I found in school-issued texts and rewrite them into a language more familiar to my students. I would replace pictures and scenarios in the texts with pictures and scenarios from the classroom, their neighborhood, local newspaper, music, or stories related to things talked about or going on in the community, such as sports, media, and social issues. I would try to talk with local community members and create stories that were more relevant to my student's lives. I was engaging in curriculum development.

When I look at examples of how I tried to do this, they seem somewhat surface. I would use a map from the scripted curriculum, with its standard names like "Cherry Lane," or "Maple Avenue," and replace them with local street names and contextual based directions more familiar to my students, like "downtown," "towards the river," "the metro stop," "the carry-out," "the next community," or "shopping plaza." I changed the name of landmarks to reflect those in the neighborhood, such as the school, park, or a restaurant. I used anything as long as they were local landmarks. Regardless of whether they knew the information already, they knew we were talking about things familiar to others in the class, or things located in their local lived context. To engage with a lesson about constructing expository writing became a little more interesting and motivating as students were slightly more familiar with the names and places, they appeared to have more general interest when they came across something that they did not know. I

TEACHERS DECISIONS

blurred the lines on conventions of formal language and speech. This allowed the instructional conversation to focus more on developing of opinions, ideation, sharing stories, and using of any language for expression. As a result, my students appeared to want to know more about the content and from others perspectives, and the content was their lives (at least so much as I could work in from my limited knowledge).

When introducing new concepts and terminology, students had increased capacity to talk about and critically analyze information if I provided a context for them to hold onto while in the classroom. Students became interested learning about things that were familiar to them and could be found in their environments. I found that my students completed more work at a more proficient rate. As a result, students were able to reach higher levels of learning and demonstrated an interest in the role that knowledge played in their future. We talked more, questioned more, and laughed more. Anecdotally speaking, we were happier. As we talked about their lives, I began with trying to keep them focused on the task of reading and writing. Most of my students did not have a record of success in these areas. The reality was that most of the students struggled to complete grade-level work independently, and certainly not without proper and contextualized instruction. Initially, I was finding that my students were struggling to produce quality independent work that demonstrated that they were learning.

I cannot say for sure that my students demonstrated more academic progress and performance after my time with them (certainly not according to standards and tests). At the time, I did not know that what I chose to do was more “effective.” Yet I know we learned. I know we engaged one another. I know we talked about their lives and I know that this all changed around test time. I know that I was expressly required to engage my students in test-like materials and told how to go over them with my students. I know that packets were provided by

TEACHERS DECISIONS

the office from the district with materials aligned to the skills on the test. I know that, as a whole school, we would be looking at the same test preparation materials across grade levels. This would go on for weeks before the test. I was responsible to “drill and kill,” or drill the students again and again so they would perform well (“kill”) on the test. I did it, and, I remember telling my students, “Hang on guys, this will all be over soon and we can get back to learning.” In the end, knowing now what I should have known then, I wish I would have had the knowledge and experience in working with contextualized pedagogies to make learning and drill time more effective.

The Second Narrative: My Experience in Hawai‘i

Several years later, I became responsible for preparing teachers to work in diverse and marginalized contexts in the unique and nuanced cultural, historical, and political context of Hawai‘i. In classrooms, I immediately noticed similar issues around the disconnects between teaching and students' lives. I continued to hear about the imposition of administrative and policy directives, and I heard perspectives from powerful entities that both disregarded the value of local teachers, not seeing them as experienced and knowledgeable professionals, and undervalued their knowledge of students' lived experiences. Alongside this narrative, I continued to observe and talk with newly recruited teachers who were unfamiliar with the context in which they were teaching and who lacked knowledge and training in the varieties and practices of contextualized pedagogy. It appeared to me as if these factors complicated teachers' abilities to make meaningful decisions about the connections between curriculum and instruction and students' lives. As a result, I again witnessed teaching that was disconnected from student experiences. Given my understanding of the role contextualization has in learning, these disconnects continued to be problematic. As my knowledge increased about contextualized

TEACHERS DECISIONS

pedagogy, local culture, socioeconomic challenges, and ecological environments present in students' lives, I became more critically aware of the meaningful connections possible for the curriculum and instruction. These realizations are situated in a process that began without me knowing about the first thing.

From very early on in my time in Hawai'i, I began to see some of the similar patterns of educational and economic inequity present in my previous context. Communities with people from lower-income and marginalized ethnic and cultural backgrounds were underrepresented in educational, social, economic, and political power structures. As a result, students from these communities are struggling in schools. At the time I arrived in Hawai'i, the policy of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was in full swing and schools were expected to have 100% of public school students academically proficient, but the situation remained the same as many students, especially those from marginalized contexts, were struggling to meet the achievement goals as evidenced by standardized test scores and graduation percentages.

I also saw underprepared, alternatively trained teachers, who were primarily new to the context in which they were teaching. I heard a new teacher ask questions of Hawaiian language and culture in terms of, "Isn't their language dead? No one really acts like that anymore." I heard teachers say, "If they just learned to sit still and be quiet, they could learn." While another teacher suggested that Hawaiians should be happy with the opportunities that colonization had given them.

In my earliest recollections of classrooms in Hawai'i, I noticed the heavy usage of standardized curriculums, research-based strategies, outside curriculum coaches, and data teams from programs like America's Choice and Edison used in schools serving diverse and marginalized students. Most, if not all of these were federally-funded programs. In my

TEACHERS DECISIONS

experience, these educational mechanisms appeared more frequently in lower socioeconomic areas with underrepresented cultural groups, and in particular Native Hawaiian educational contexts.

Powerful Rhetoric in the Hawai'i Context

I also discovered some interesting narratives and perceptions from both school administrators as well as the administrators for local teacher preparation programs. Some of the following experiences help to paint a picture of the ideological struggles that exist around teacher preparation in Hawai'i. In a conversation with an administrator about courses being offered in remote locations accessible to aspiring teachers who were interested in teaching in their communities, and many of whom were from rural and predominantly Hawaiian communities, I heard one administrator say, "If you are from the Westside, and you have never left the Westside, then you have no business teaching on the Westside." This administrator was referring to the Leeward coast of O'ahu, where schools have a high percentage of working class and high poverty students from marginalized ethnic groups, including a nearly 40-50% population of Hawaiian students.

In another example, I asked principal of a school in the Leeward coast community whether they would rather employ a highly-qualified, locally-prepared teacher who was from the community for 30 years, or employ a mainland recruit for 2 years. He responded, "I would much rather have a mainland recruit for 2 years." When I asked why, he said that "Certain mainland recruits are much more intelligent, and teach the knowledge and skills our students need to be prepared for college." Along these lines, in a conversation about local teachers, I asked a principal who had come from the mainland the same question, and he said, "Certain mainland teachers work much harder and are much more innovative than local teachers." When I asked

TEACHERS DECISIONS

about the high turnover rate of certain mainland teacher recruits in Hawai‘i, with many recruits only completing a 2-year commitment before leaving he said, "I can always find another one next year."

In a meeting about the justification for the development of a local teacher pipeline, I once heard a college administrator say, "We must get these people jobs and education because there are no more pineapples for these people to pick." When looking at these experiences, I had to wonder if these perspectives of administrators underpin the disconnect between students' lives and their education that in turn results increased academic challenges. Could the biased perspectives in the mind of leaders be connected to outcomes in the classroom?

I was (and still am) shocked at the perspective held by some very powerful and accomplished professional educators. I acknowledge that some of the ideas are entirely constructed from outsider and dominant ideological perspectives, but some of these individuals were from the islands. I understood that these perspectives were not by any means wholly representative of the entire range of people working in public education— local or not. Still, I knew that I had to question how these perspectives have the potential to influence practice. I became more acutely aware of how some teachers viewed the local context and the communities they were working in or for. Further, I became aware of how solutions to the academic problems associated with struggling learners in high poverty schools were being put forth by the district, and how contexts that were explicitly influenced by federal education policy, retained aspects of this much grander and problematic, yet underlying ideology.

My Experience in Teacher Preparation

While in Hawai‘i, I was fortunate to be given a role in preparing teachers to engage in the challenges and realities I had faced in my classroom. This was complicated by the fact that I was

TEACHERS DECISIONS

new to the context. With my experience, I took a similar path that I had discovered in the previous context; in that, I began by asking questions. I talked to teachers about how they chose their curriculum and instruction. I got to know as much as I could about local cultural diversity resulting from historical and contemporary immigration, the socioeconomic realities of historical and contemporary marginalization, and the historical and contemporary impacts of colonization including disease, invasive species, and the dispossession of land. I learned about some of the things local culture valued: place, relationships, stories, listening, humility, children, generations, protocol, and the land.

In this new capacity, I continued to explore the issues of preparing both teachers from outside the community, but also local teachers who wanted to teach in their communities. In Hawai‘i, there is a recurrent teacher shortage problem. The state hires nearly 1,000-1,500 new teachers each school year and has done so for the past 10-15 years. Schools serving marginalized students have the highest rate of teacher turnover. This often requires recruitment of teachers from the mainland U.S. because, as a state, we only produce about 500-600 teachers per year from our local teacher preparation pipelines (and many of these graduates return to the mainland or teach in certain communities in the islands). Some of the new teacher recruits arrive days or weeks before the school year, and may or may not know very much about the unique cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological environment of students they teach, whether through their own lack of experience or because their teacher preparation programs lacked the knowledge and skills to give them. These challenges are further exacerbated by the federal education policy context initially dominated by NCLB and later by U.S. Department of Education’s Race to the Top initiative (RTT, 2009). Accountability reforms mandated the use of scripted curriculum models and doubled-down on prioritizing academic performance on standardized testing.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

I now work with many aspiring teachers who wish to teach in communities with students experiencing academic difficulty (defined as success on standardized test scores in reading and math). As such, I struggle to think how these narratives relate to the overall problem of the disconnect between schools and students. Is this the common narrative: "local" teachers are untraveled, uncultured, less intelligent than a teacher who is recruited from out of context or an elite university. If so, how does this narrative resonate with the overall policy agenda of accountability reforms, new attempts at the scripted curriculum, the techno-rational "effective" teacher, and control over teacher practice and pedagogy? Does the implementation of a scripted curriculum that is meant to be followed with "fidelity" squeeze out the well-developed and successful curriculum of "local" teachers? Does the recruitment of "non-local," highly educated teachers value pedagogies and curriculums of the mainstream over other locally produced or contextualized pedagogies? Does the narrative of accountability reform compliance dominate teacher decision-making in the planning, execution, and reflection of their practice? And, quite simply, is the curriculum we are providing presented as meaningful to students in terms of what is relative and useful to their lives, as constructed by the community in which they live?

A Classroom Narrative in Hawai'i

In order to continue the exploration of these issues, I provide a final example where a local narrative was in direct tension with a dominant one. This experience had a meaningful impact on me as a teacher, and as a teacher of teachers. It resonates with the story I shared about my challenge on the first day, and it challenges the most immediate and simple power of the education system: the role of the teacher in the classroom as the person responsible for the transfer of knowledge.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

I was conducting a school visit in the official capacity of a new teacher supervisor. I was responsible for seeing teachers demonstrate a number of standards of teacher practice. This particular school was located in rural O‘ahu. The school had a majority population of mixed ethnicity, and many of the students were from predominantly Native Hawaiian and Filipino ethnic backgrounds. Perhaps more importantly, the majority of the students were born and raised in their community.

In Hawai‘i, Hawaiians/ Part-Hawaiians and Filipinos are among the ethnic groups experiencing socioeconomic challenges and underrepresentation in higher education. Native Hawaiians and Filipinos are underrepresented in higher education in the state of Hawai‘i, and as a result, existing in disproportionate ethnic representation between public school students and teachers. Of the approximately 183,000 students in Hawai‘i Department of Education schools, nearly 50% are Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian or Filipino, while only about 15% of the teachers come from these ethnic groups. These cultural/ethnic groups score lower on standardized testing when compared with other ethnic and higher socioeconomic groups such as Japanese, other East Asian groups, and Whites.

The new teacher I was supervising had been placed at the school as a part of a two-year commitment to the Hawai‘i Department of Education from a mainland recruiting agency. The teacher was young, White, privately educated, affluent, and brand new to the community, with an academic pedigree from an elite, single-gender, private liberal arts school on the east coast of the U.S. It immediately struck me that while the teacher had prepared a very informative, content-rich lesson that was supported by her educational background, students appeared to lack any engagement and interest. They were not being asked to do anything with the new information provided other than to sit and listen in preparation for a task on a test.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In all honesty, I myself was having trouble paying attention to lesson given the teaching strategies being employed. This teacher gave a straight lecture for 45 minutes via PowerPoint to a room full of 13-year-olds, in an inclusion setting. While the lesson was full of scientific knowledge and information about the physical geography of the Aleutian island chain, and specifically the role of volcanoes in creating the island archipelago, I was struck by the idea that it lacked contextual relevance to the students in her classroom, and to be quite honest as a supervisor, it lacked demonstration of fundamental effective pedagogy.

As I sat there thinking about how I would evaluate this lesson, I could not help but focus on my recurring question of how the curriculum and instruction related to students lives. Again, being an outsider from the Hawai'i context myself, I was struggling to think about the relationship between the Aleutian island chain, volcanoes, and its general geographic location in the Pacific Ocean and the Hawaiian island chain. Then, I realized that there are several connections between the two sets of islands. I immediately thought of my own knowledge with regards to surfing. In the winters, primarily from September to April, large swells visit the islands. Along with it comes a noticeable change in weather, and usually much cooler temperatures. In this community, in particular, surfing plays a large social and cultural foundation of the community. Many of the students would have relatives and neighbors who surf or participate in surf related activities. Many would also have stories of how the community changes in the winter months as the International surfing community arrives for prominent surfing competitions. With these competitions, come visitors from all around the world who support parts of the island economy with their tourist dollars. Historically speaking, the community looks very different today than before competitive surfing arrived in their community.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Beyond my immediate thoughts about surfing, I thought about the geographical connection between these two island chains, starting with their location in the Pacific Ocean. I was also thinking that both the Aleutians and the Hawaiian Islands were both archipelagos formed by volcanoes, and existing in the heavily volcanic area known as the Ring of Fire. This area has been connected to several tsunamis and we have tsunami warnings regularly in Hawai'i. There are other connections between Alaska and Hawai'i, including the United States, colonial histories, indigenous peoples, military bases, last states to join the union, and sites of important WWII battles. Additionally, I feel that the teacher may have missed an opportunity to bring a cultural story to her instruction, as it may have been appropriate to mention the goddess Pele, who is associated with volcanic eruption in the islands. I am quite certain that the use of any of this contextual connection would have enhanced the levels of engagement with the students.

While I was sitting at the back of the room ruminating on the contextual connections I came up with, and analyzing and evaluating this teacher's practice, there was an older "local" woman circling the room. She was mainly encouraging students to stay on task and complete their work. While I was not introduced to this woman, I could only assume that she was the educational assistant (EA) for this classroom.

After the teacher was finished with her nearly 45 minutes of lecturing about the geographic characteristics of the Aleutian island chain devoid of any connection to Hawai'i, the EA moved to the front of and started to tell a story. The story she told was about the Kōlea bird. I thought to myself, I had never heard of this bird. I found myself in an educational context in which I was supposed to be the most knowledgeable member, and of course, not knowing who or what the Kōlea was very intriguing. It was also intriguing how this woman had made a connection between the academic material being lectured and the local context.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

She went on to tell the story of the Kōlea bird, also known as the Golden Plover. She spoke about this small bird's annual migration from Aleutian region of the North Pacific all the way down to Hawai'i and even South America. This trip, for this very small bird, can be between 2000 and 5000 miles. With the arrival of this bird, comes the rainy season as well as the winter surf. She noted that O'ahu's North Shore is famous for its winter swells that bring surfers and tourism from all over the world to islands in the middle of the Pacific. She mentioned that these waves and migrations of both weather and fauna are connected to the economy that sustains the jobs that many of these students' parents hold.

After her short story was over, the kids smiled (it could have been because class was over). I continued to observe her behaviors and interactions with the students. I noticed that she went over to one of the students and started to talk to him about his relatives.

She said, "Is [_____] your uncle?"

"Huh?" the student replied.

"I think I saw you uncle over at Wal-Mart the other day," the EA said.

"Oh, yeah, how you know him?" the student asked.

"I have known him for a long time. Tell him I said hello," she replied.

In my opinion, the great significance in this very small window of observation in a classroom and context that I am not fully familiar with nor an expert in, is not necessarily how great of a storyteller, or even how wonderful of a connection this woman made between the official academic curriculum and the lived context of the students. Nor was it that this woman who through a story and acknowledgment of one of the student's family members was able to create some student engagement. Instead, it is an admission of guilt from the official structure of the classroom with its teachers and curriculum appointed by the state as responsible for the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

effectiveness of both the curriculum and the instruction. These teachers, myself included, were not in the position of authority when it came to local knowledge. We did not know a valuable piece of knowledge that created a meaningful connection for the students. In another glaring juxtaposition, the presumed "least powerful" adult in the room had the greatest sense of familial connection with some of the students. Constructions of effective instruction, unequal power dynamics, the nature of official knowledge, and the power of contextualized instruction all shine as important components of this narrative and the teaching process.

Conclusion: A Critical Transformation

My narratives reflect how, as a teacher, I was required to think dynamically about all kinds of problems from various perspectives and points of view, identify my assumptions, and these points of view were informed by my educational or sociocultural backgrounds, and my lived experiences (Goodson, 2014; Stein, 2000). Similarly, my participation in and knowledge of the community that I worked in significantly influenced my practice in both positive and negative ways (Goodson, 2014). As I became more aware of problems in my teaching, and in particular the problem of contextualizing knowledge in the life of students, I had to confront my role in it. When I was able to expand my thinking about working in communities that I am not from, I began to change how I operated. I became more acutely aware of what was necessary for me to do in order to make changes. Furthermore, I was able to begin to identify connections between my classroom experiences and problematic aspects of education reform. This includes the existence of narratives that are not entirely understanding of or very respectful to the role of local knowledge and local teachers in the education of students in diverse and marginalized contexts. Together, my stories provide a narrative illustration of some concepts associated with

TEACHERS DECISIONS

making curriculum and instruction relevant to students lives and some of the barriers that might exist to making appropriate contextualization happen.

Across the broad educational landscape, I do not believe my experiences are unique. As a whole, this narrative sketch informs the following chapters about my critical, foundational, and standing points. My critical point describes the mechanisms of accountability reform, the foundational point uncovers the historical trail of veiled education reform leading to the directives for teachers to use standardized educational mechanisms, and my standing point focuses on the literature review the foundations of contextualized pedagogies. There is significant literature to suggest that education policy, with its standardized approaches, is explicitly designed in such a way that it facilitates this disconnect between students and the curriculum (Chapter Three). There is also significant literature to suggest that federal constructions of education reform may be linked to questionable vestiges of colonial, reductive ideology, and dehumanizing theory (Chapter Four). Similarly, there is significant literature to suggest that contextualized connections between students and curriculum are important to the learning process (Chapter Five). These contextual connections are important to the social transformation of diverse and marginalized students' lives, and in particular in the context of this inquiry (Chapter Six). My curiosity has to do with exploring how these contexts contribute to teacher decision making and facilitate the disconnects and the possibilities of how teachers can make curriculum and instruction meaningful.

CHAPTER 3: A REVIEW OF FEDERAL EDUCATION POLICY - A CRITICAL POINT

Federal policies are a part of the political apparatus used to guide civic life. Federal policies on the education of U.S. public school students focus on their lives in schools. These policies are composed of clear directives for governing the way public schools progress towards specific goals. They are supported by political rhetoric expounding on the reasons for the general improvement and quality of public schools. The goals, aims, purposes, and directives of policy are often presented explicitly by politicians, policies, and in the transparency of public work (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009). As they operate, the reforms influence how the purpose of public education is constructed and works to influence and control the work of schools (Au, 2007; Bartolome, 2004; Bien, 2013; Biesta et al., 2015; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009; Spillane et al., 2011).

This chapter presents a description of aspects of federal education policy resulting in a standardized approach to pedagogy. The general presentation of elements of policy is opportunity to make more explicit the principles and mechanisms that lend accountability reforms credibility. I discuss the following aspects of reform initiatives:

1. The powerful rhetoric used to frame its purpose and process.
2. The explicitly stated policy directives.
3. A centrally defined purpose for reform.
4. The operational principle of reforms.
5. The descriptions and criticisms of the educational mechanisms.

Rhetoric focuses on federal reforms as a mandate, and are operationalized around the singular principle of accountability. To achieve accountability and ensure the meeting of universal ends, reforms organize around the implementation of a variety of standardized

TEACHERS DECISIONS

mechanisms. These mechanisms include: (a) universal academic goals; (b) common objectives (c) evidence based curriculum and instruction strategies (d) data collection to measure instructional fidelity to the scripted curriculum; (e) high-stakes testing; (f) evaluative reports with recommended structural adjustments. (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009)

Critical Perspectives on Accountability Reforms

In the era of accountability, reformers posit that highly-qualified teachers taking effective technical action on curriculum and instruction are the key to increased student performance on standardized assessments (Day et al., 2007; Tobin et al., 1994; Haney, et al., 1996; Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Harris & Sass, 2007). In order to achieve this principal aim, reforms have transformed teachers' curriculum and instruction (Comber & Nixon, 2009; Day et al., 2007; Tharp et al., 2000;). The reforms operate from the assumption that mandating the use of specific instructional mechanisms controls for teachers' practice for the purpose of making it more effective (Paine & Zeichner, 2012). These imperatives, when implemented with compliance and fidelity, become a rationalized, singular way to reach the predetermined goals (Ball, 1994; Day et al., 2007).

Due to these mandates, accountability reform is an apparatus controlling the ways public education is delivered to culturally diverse and economically marginalized students (Ball, 1999, 2003; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Lipman, 1997, 2006, 2007; Smith, 2005). The policies are problematic because they rely on the implementation of standardized educational mechanisms to regulate the practice of teachers (Au, 2011; Comber & Nixon, 2009, Zeprun, 2014; Bien, 2013). With these narrow definitions of teaching, critical scholarship suggests that reforms operate in transreductionary ways (Au, 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ravitch, 2012; Wright, 1997). Critical perspectives suggest that policies may actually work to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

reinforce social structures thereby reproducing and reinforcing inequality (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Diamond, 2007; Diamond and Spillane, 2004; Hursh, 2007; Karen, 2005).

As a whole, the goals, organization, and mandating of curricular mechanisms is problematic for the following reasons: (a) they imply a lack of respect for teachers as professionals as they appear to conscript and monitor teachers' work; (b) reforms discriminately target diverse and marginalized students; (c) reforms complicate teachers' decision-making power with prescribed curriculum and instruction. As such, these mechanisms reduce opportunities to use contextual knowledge of the lives of students in diverse and marginalized communities, since these mechanisms do not allow for divergent pedagogical strategies built upon humanizing foundations that seek connections between the curriculum and instruction and students' lives. In this way, reforms become a barrier to contextualizing curriculum and instruction in the life of students. As a result, accountability reforms have significantly influenced the work of teachers in ways that may not be in the best interest of diverse and marginalized students (Ball; 2003; Hursh, 2005; Pinar, 2012).

U.S. Federal Education Policy

Over the past 60 years, the U.S. federal government has played an increased role in how public education is delivered to students (Ravitch, 2011). Over that time (and more so recently) there has been a proliferation of laws that govern public schools and mandate the implementation of standardized mechanisms.

Race to the Top Reforms

A recent example of a federal education policy initiative that is responsible for mandating how schools operate is Race to the Top (RTT). Race to the Top (RTT) began in 2009 during President Barack Obama's administration (RTT, 2009). It was a powerful extension of the No

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2002) that originated in the Lyndon B. Johnson's passing of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA, 1965). RTT has been colloquially sold by policymakers as an opportunity to see what the results would be if reforms were fully funded after numerous reformers claimed that changes demanded by NCLB legislation were difficult to implement because they were insufficiently funded. A federal stimulus package provided the funding that RTT needed to focus on increasing the rigorous nature of state and local accountability systems to ensure that public school students who attended Title I schools would receive a high-quality education. High-quality according to accountability reforms means, rigorous standards tied to research-based, uniform curriculum that is equally delivered, commonly assessed for evidence, and thoroughly evaluated (ESSA, 2015).

RTT is similar to NCLB in that it provides explicit directives to states and districts about methods of transformation for their systems to ensure students are making agreed upon progress to academic targets. Like NCLB before, RTT focused on students' academic performance as measured by high-stakes testing with particular attention to quality control mechanisms that prescriptively guide teachers' curriculum and instruction as the means by which to achieve the prescribed performance. Along common historical lines of federal legislation on public education, RTT efforts claimed that an equalization of the access to a high-quality education creates the opportunity for academic achievement linked to economic opportunities for the individual and the nation.

Politicians who supported RTT argued that an increased federal oversight in education is needed to address achievement gaps. The primary concern of the politicians with regards to these gaps is the difference in performance on standardized measures of learning (test scores) and achievement (graduation and college attendance) between two groups of students, those who

TEACHERS DECISIONS

are proficient performing and those who are not. When speaking about those who are not performing, policymakers often point to the racial and cultural demographics of students, and they do so in comparison to their Whiter and more affluent peers. While aspects of achievement gaps are talked about in terms cultural diversity, their construction is also heavily influenced by socioeconomic class, often cited in policy as students who are disadvantaged, economically disadvantaged, and/or coming from low-income backgrounds. Finally, policy is also concerned with what it points to achievement gaps between students in different geographic settings, among them urban, suburban, and rural.

To address these achievement gaps, Race to the Top provided funding (and contingency mandates) for local systems of education in certain states. Through all the phases, more than \$4 billion was awarded to 19 states (12 in phase one, and seven in phase two). Each state submitted an application to the federal government that outlined plans for reform. According to RTT policy (2009), states that were awarded funding based on their own decisions to implement “coherent, compelling, and comprehensive education reform.” “Winners,” as the states who receive funding were called by federal bureaucrats, became obliged to “adopt” and implement a new wave of reform mechanisms in their public schools.

The implementation of these mechanisms represents a full cycle of accountability (RTT, 2009). The accountability mechanisms were used, “to ensure maximum integrity and transparency” (RTT, 2009). These mechanisms included the universally applied Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (SBAC) tests. The “winners” also promised to serve as test markets for a variety of “evidence-based” prescriptive curriculums across core subject areas of math and English Language Arts (ELA). The curriculum materials were produced by large national and international textbook publishing

TEACHERS DECISIONS

companies, such as Houghton-Mifflin, McGraw-Hill, and Pearson. Additionally, states were required to adopt data collection systems to monitor the fidelity to which teachers implemented the curriculum. The policy required states to use uniform tools of teacher evaluation to inform teachers' instructional methods. As a part of the RTT, schools linked the data from tests on common academic targets to assure compliance to the reforms and fidelity in the classroom. Finally, and based on their performance, states were rewarded with the recognition and financial incentives or corrective punishments that amount to increased government regulation.

The Rhetoric of Power

When the *Race to the Top* was launched, it was billed as "an historic moment in American education" that brought "bold incentives to states willing to spur systemic reform to improve teaching and learning in America's schools" (White House Archives, website.). *RTT* is located within a reform movement to "drive states nationwide to pursue higher standards, improve teacher effectiveness, use data effectively in the classroom, and adopt new strategies to help struggling schools." (NCLB, 2001, p. 1) Reforms claimed to result in "significant changes in our education system, particularly in raising standards and aligning policies and structures to the goal of college and career readiness" (The White House Archives, 2009. Webpage).

Arne Duncan, U.S. Secretary of Education and architect of reform. At the public announcement of the beginning of what was colloquially called "the Race", Arne Duncan, Secretary at the U.S. Department of Education, remarked, "Today is a great day." (Duncan, 2009). Duncan characterized the reforms as being built on the idea of "education as the great equalizer in America, no matter what your zip code." He claimed that for RTT, the federal government mobilized more resources for education reform than the previous four presidential administrations and 29 years of federal policy combined (Duncan, 2009). Duncan (2009)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

portrayed the RTT as, "crossing a great threshold in education reform" in what amounts to a once in a lifetime opportunity to achieve a public education equivalent of the "moon shot" (this metaphor draws connections between RTT and the Space Race credited as the first step to comprehensive federal reform of public schools). He referred to RTT as "the perfect storm of reform" that will allow for public education's first "man on the moon" moment. The significant increase in funding for schools serving disadvantaged students arrived amidst rhetorical calls that reforms would change the status quo by using schools as the most powerful public institution in the "daily fight for social justice" (Duncan, 2009).

President Barack Obama's Purpose of Reform. At Duncan's side that day was President Barack Obama. President Obama (2009) told the American people that, "education is so central to rebuilding our economy." He said, the RTT competition states would "ensure that America succeeds as a nation in the 21st century." He claimed, "knowledge is the most important (economic) commodity that a person and a country have to offer," and that the world economy will reward the country that "best educates its people." As he did so, Obama (2009) also stated that in retrospect, U.S. public schools have not done a good job of educating students as evidenced by lagging tests scores and the lack of progress in math and science in comparison to international students. He stated that academic underperformance costs the U.S. people (e.g. economy) "billions in wages that will not be earned, jobs that will not be done, and purchases that will not be made." President Obama made note that achievement gaps remain consistent and hurt people's opportunity to gain access to college and careers. This is especially true as businesses and business owners rank the academic performance of our students and the quality of curriculum and instruction in our public school students as poor (Obama, 2009).

The Powerful Way for All. President Obama plainly that what needs to be done is to set “rigorous and challenging standards and assessments,” put quality teachers in all classrooms, and use evidence of academic learning of the benchmarks was the way to “incentivize excellence.” Insomuch, the federal government used limited access, but expensive resources as a way to get states to adopt the directives and focus on the academic performance of their students in order for the people to “outperform workers around the world” (Obama, 2009). President Obama also said that the RTT is not “based on politics or ideology, or the preferences of a particular interest group.” Instead, he proclaimed that the challenge of reforms was based on “a simple principle of whether a state is ready to do what [we know] works.” He claimed that this test-driven approach to education will result in better students, better teachers, and better schools, and that improvement in public education would lead to a better economy and a better America (Obama, 2009). In doing so, he suggested that if everyone does their part, then America would have a strong economy and our schools would be the envy of the world (Obama, 2009). Finally, President Obama stated that in order to accomplish this challenging task, “we need to put the interests of our children ahead of our own parochial interests,” and that in fact there is “no choice” in whether or how, rather the work needs to be done.

Reason for Pause

The policymakers were clear with their intents and means, but there are critical questions that arose amidst claims that reforms were not inherently political or ideological, and the idea that they are a tool of social justice. It would appear that these claims are at best, misleading, and at worst academically inaccurate. There is little evidence from scholarship to suggest that reforms have been successful in reducing structural inequities (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Ravitch, 2013). Critical scholars of education suggest that federal policy is politically divisive,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

ideologically driven, and exclusively provincial at the core (Ravitch, 2011; 2013). In my summation, either the policymakers do not fully understand the reality and history of their reforms, or they are misleading the public to believe that reforms are in the best interest for whom they are implemented. Given that reforms are not applied across all public schools, this generally means students who are other than White, students from lower socioeconomic classes, and students who are from largely urban or rural geographic areas (Burch, 2009; Lipman, 2004, 2013).

The Influential Center of Federal Education Policy

The truth of the intents and purposes of federal education policy is located in the language of the reform directives, as well as how these concepts, principles, and constructs are interpreted by state and local politicians and educators as the reforms make their way into schools. The terms of policy are bound by funding and promises that lead social actors to make specific decisions followed by specific actions. The implementation of reform requires states and districts to decide how to adopt the mandates and mechanisms that drive the complicit and compliant actions. As a result of increased federal accountability, states have significantly changed how their systems of public education operate, and this has significantly changed the day-to-day of teachers' work. Current perspectives on the ways in which schools should operate are driven by directives from No Child Left Behind (NCLB) accountability reform and are explicitly outlined as (NCLB, 2002, p.1):

- ensuring high-quality assessments, accountability, and common expectations for all schools;
- meeting the needs of marginalized students in high poverty schools;
- closing achievement gaps between minority and non-minority students;

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- provide resources to schools in need; in particular by developing systems of sanctions and rewards for students' academic performance
- increase standardized testing and measurement systems for the disadvantaged;
- increasing local control in exchange for greater accountability;
- providing high quality, effective, research-based instruction; and,
- enriching instructional programs.

Evolving from NCLB, *Race to the Top* (2009) reduced the largess of policy directives to four specific areas. These areas explicitly laid out the standardization of educational mechanisms including: objectives and assessments, improving the effectiveness of teachers through curriculum and instruction, data collection to drive fidelity, and the focus on our underperforming students. These required actions are outlined in RTT (2009) as:

- adopt standards and assessments that prepare students to succeed in college and the workplace and to compete in the global economy;
- build data systems that measure student growth and success, and inform teachers and principals about how they can improve instruction;
- recruit, develop, reward, and retain effective teachers and principals, especially where they are needed most;
- turn around our lowest-achieving schools.

Education Reform and the Targeting of Diverse and Marginalized Students

The policy goals call for the assurance of an equal, quality, and effective education for all schools serving underperforming students (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; ESEA). Federal education policy states it is interested in regulation (through fidelity and compliance) of public education for “low-achieving children in our Nation's highest-poverty schools, limited English proficient

TEACHERS DECISIONS

children, migratory children, children with disabilities, Indian children, neglected or delinquent children, and young children in need of reading assistance” (NCLB, 2002, STATEMENT OF PURPOSE, Title I-Sec. 1001). These policies are intent on “closing the achievement gap between high- and low-performing children, especially the achievement gaps between minority and nonminority students, and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers” (NCLB, 2002, STATEMENT OF PURPOSE, Title I-Sec. 1001). Connections between policy targets of cultural diversity and socioeconomics, means that schools serving non-White and marginalized students are often beholden to increased state and federal regulations (Burch, 2009; Lipman, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 1998, 2006; Bartolome, 2004; Spillane, et. al, 2011). As a result, public school teachers working in diverse and marginalized educational contexts are more likely to be influenced by these reforms (Apple, 2000; Day, et. al., 2007; Gruenewald, 2003; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 2006; Lipman, 2006, 2011; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp, 2006).

Critical Considerations About the Targets of Reform

As a result of the unequal power dynamics that exist between the federal government and the schools and teachers who serve the students who are targeted by these policies, we need critical examinations of federal education reforms, and this is a matter of social justice. While reformers argue that these mandates are in the best interest of students and the common good of society, policies are not implemented in all schools serving the entirety of public school students. We should consider who is actually being targeted by the federal government, who is doing the targeting, and any historical precedents that include the why and how the targeting happens. This consideration is especially necessary when we consider this inescapable truth: reforms explicitly target specific schools serving certain demographic groups who they considered deficient, underperforming, and in need of what some reformers construct as some form of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

salvation.

Historical context. Historically speaking, government controlled systems of public education were predicated on filling schoolhouses with culturally diverse (meaning non-White) and economically marginalized (low-income or poverty situations resulting from historical and structural power imbalances) populations. In the United States, schools were designed as mechanisms of reform by a largely White, protestant, politically-involved men operating from very specific constructions of society and perceptions of these groups of people. Mass schooling was an effort required by governments to manage changes brought about by a number of significant social realities (Kaestle & Smith, 1982; Kantor, 1991; Kliebard, 2004). This included the taking control of Native-American and Indian peoples' ancestral homelands while ridding the manifested and destined United States from the "Indian Problem" so carefully outlined in the Dawes Act of 1887.

One message remains consistent in the historical development of governmental schools for people who are other than White: these people needed to be saved from their heathen and savage ways. When looking from specific historical vantage points, it appears that systems were designed as an apparatus of hegemony by specific characters from the dominant socio-political group for the transformation of peoples that they considered to be seen as lesser-than, under-developed, and genetically and intellectually inferior. As such, these schools were developed on ideas and ideals that amounted to little more than colonial, racist enterprises built upon false and questionable foundations and perceptions of "the other", and resulting in tainted practices to change unique human beings into the desired image of those who created the schools for their specific needs. At the time, these systems were developed by philanthropists and reformers under a cloak of social justice and justified as in the best interest of marginalized communities

TEACHERS DECISIONS

(Adams, 1995; Kliebard, 2004). Similarly, schools created in marginalized communities became a means of sustaining the dominant culture against newly freed slaves and different cultural groups from mass immigration resulting from the period of industrialization. Prominent examples of schools designed for specific cultural groups include vocational training for African-Americans at Hampton Institute, Native American Boarding schools administered by Bureau of Indian Affairs, and general descriptions of the development of mass education systems from 1800s Massachusetts (Kliebard, 2004; Spring, 2009).

Title I. Currently, though, the federal government is focused intently on the education of students who come from non-White and politically, economically, and ecologically marginalized contexts, as the federal government’s educational initiatives are supported by policy prescriptions and financial resources clearly outlined in the Title I section of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA, 1965). As mentioned above, Title I is the governing language which allocates grants, having emerged from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The Title I portion of ESEA spotlights the purpose of federal education policy in the heading, “IMPROVING THE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF THE DISADVANTAGED.” The allocations are designed so that schools and education can “ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments.” (USDOE, 2017, Title I).

The monies bring increased regulations designed to hold schools accountable for the delivery of a “high quality” education that assures a “fair, equal, and significant opportunity” to students by controlling curriculum and instruction as measured for by standardized examinations of student achievement of uniform academic objectives (USDOE, 2017). Title I covers a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

majority of public school students in the United States, as 51% of all public schools meet the 40% required threshold of poverty evidenced by number of students who are eligible to receive free and reduced lunch (FRL) (Suitts, 2015).

Students from diverse contexts. Title I monies are explicitly designated for schools with higher percentages of students coming from disadvantaged and lower socioeconomic status families. As discussed previously, there is inherent ethnic diversity located herein. Federal education policies impact the approximately 50 million students (and their teachers) attending public schools in the United States, and most of these 50 million students in U.S. public schools represent aspects of the historical and contemporary growth of cultural diversity from continued immigration (Bartolome, 2004; Nieto, 2005; Goodwin, 2010). Overall, approximately 55% of public school students identify with culturally diverse backgrounds other than White and/or European, with 65% of the students in Title I schools coming from culturally diverse backgrounds other than White (ESEA, 2002). In U.S. public schools, approximately 25% of students identify as Hispanic/Latino, 15% as African-American, 6% as Asian and Pacific Islander, 1% as Native American, and 4% as coming from mixed cultural backgrounds (National Center for Education Statistics, 2017).

Within these groups, students come from a wide range of cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds and live across a range of ecological environments. The cultural backgrounds are characterized by diverse histories, languages, cultures, value sets, worldviews, social norms, and everyday experiences. Socioeconomic backgrounds include a range of social classes influenced by family history, income levels, accumulated wealth, unemployment, educational levels of attainment, and the historical and contemporary effects of marginalization. From an ecological perspective, students live in a range of urban, suburban, township, and rural contexts across 50

TEACHERS DECISIONS

different states and many colonial protectorates. Each of these differs widely based on physical geography, biodiversity, community planning, and environmental challenges.

Cultural diversity. Teachers are making decisions and holding perceptions about relevance within curriculum and instruction amongst the vast array of diversity of cultures in the United States, especially considering that research shows schools are becoming more and more segregated along cultural and ethnic lines, and in particular, White and non-White lines (Kozol, 2004, Orfield & Lee, 2005). A majority of students from diverse backgrounds attend schools in communities characterized by a majority population of students identified as other than White (Orfield & Lee, 2005). These concentrations of non-White students complicate the aforementioned statistic that 65% of students attend Title I schools. For example, 77% of Hispanic/Latino, 73% of African-American, and over 50% Asian and Native American students attend schools with more than 50% students from diverse backgrounds defined as other than White (Orfield & Lee, 2005). As much as 40% of Hispanic/Latino and African American students attend schools that are 90% non-White, including nearly 20% of each group attending schools that are 99% non-White (Orfield & Lee, 2005). 27% of Native Americans and approximately 15% of Asians attend schools with less than 10% White students (Orfield & Lee, 2005). Research has repeatedly linked school segregation with disparities in educational outcomes of achievement and attainment (Card & Rothstein, 2006; Johnson, 2011; Vigdor & Ludwig, 2007). These disparate outcomes have been found to substantiate and perpetuate cycles of social inequity, thereby having a negative impact on schooling for diverse and marginalized students.

Links between ethnic diversity and economic poverty. Cultural and ethnic segregation has also been linked to decreased access to socioeconomic resources. For example, “88% of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

high minority schools (more than 90% minority) are [also] high poverty schools” (Orfield & Lee, 2005, p. 16). The diversity that characterizes communities with limited access to economic resources is situated within the broader context of growing wealth inequality. Recent studies suggest that poverty, when defined by combined income of \$48,000 for a family of four, affects more than 40% of all students in K-12 public schools. Of these, 20% of the students are defined as poor, meaning a family of four living on less than \$25,000 dollars a year. (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2017; National Center for Children in Poverty, 2016). Younger children are also more likely to experience poverty (National Center for Children in Poverty, 2016). When ethnic diversity is considered, low-income students from Black, Hispanic/Latino, and Native American families make up approximately 60% of all students living in poverty (National Center for Children in Poverty, 2016). Students of color are approximately three times as likely to live in poverty than their White peers (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2017).

Marginalized populations. Among these diverse groups (and amidst wealth inequity) are a subset of students who come from communities that are historically, politically, culturally, economically, and ecologically marginalized. Marginalization is commonly constructed as a lack of social equity measured by a range of policy, health, education, and socioeconomic factors resulting from historical and contemporary oppression of their socioeconomic and political power. The causes for marginalization is well-documented. The exclusion from power comes from histories that are complicated by colonization, unjust systems of capital and land seizure or private ownership, the displacement of indigenous peoples on to lands that were resource depleted, and the development of highly politicized global economic markets that benefit a powerful few groups of people and value wealthy state entities. Many scholars argue that cultural, economic, and ecological marginalization are linked to the rise of global capitalism

TEACHERS DECISIONS

(Apple, 2001; Burch, 2007; Lipman, 2009) and hegemonic aspects of dominant social systems and institutions (Bourdieu, 1977). The sociocultural consequences are such that marginalized peoples and their cultures have been devalued or are invisible within dominant social institutions, including schools (McLaren, 2015). Across varied contexts, marginalization has resulted in the loss or degradation of cultural knowledge, practices, and values forming the traditional foundations of culture (Artiles, 2003; Moll & Gonzalez, 1994; Nieto, 2005). On top of eradicating or devaluing cultural identities, relationships, and funds of knowledge, it has also eroded ways of securing socioeconomic resources and the maintenance of historical and sustaining ecological relationships between peoples and their lands.

Indigenous populations. In this inquiry, indigenous peoples are explicitly included when mentioning the diverse and marginalized, but in its official mention in Title I legislation, indigenous peoples are constructed only as “Indian” and “Native American” peoples. The terms “Indian” and “Native American” are essentialized terms, and groups all students from these diverse groups into one totalizing population of “Indian” rather people from unique tribal affiliations, cultural languages and practices, and geographic locations. Native American groups were not one essentialized group of people, and they had and have unique names, languages, practices, arts, and utilized environmental contexts in different ways. The tribes of the North American continent are vast and diverse. In noting the indigenous people of the North American continent now dominated by the U.S. federal government, this inquiry acknowledges special consideration for the history of these people. To this point, we need scholarship that is willing to unpack this historical context of colonization which led to the development of education policy in the marginalized indigenous context. As a result of colonization, genocide, political domination, and the usurpation of ancestral homelands, indigenous groups experienced a rapid

TEACHERS DECISIONS

decrease in population, the changing of established cultural systems, and a significant decrease in access to valuable cultural, social, and economic resources (Adams, 1995; Gover, 2000; Richie, 2008; Spring, 2003). The legacy of colonization persists and continues to have long reaching effects as federal governments continue to impose policies on schools serving these groups (Adams, 1995; Gover, 2000; Richie, 2008).

Perceptions of diverse and marginalized students as “deficient”. The increasing diversity, coupled with persistent marginalization of students in the U.S., has evolved from historical government policy contexts that contain questionable colonial and racist perspectives, as further discussed in the following chapter. As these perspectives are redefined in contemporary terms, the overall perceptions of these students have remained the same: politicians, educational policy, and school systems characterize students in diverse and marginalized populations as deficit and in need of remediation (Demmert, 2001, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Jencks & Phillips, 2011; Kaomea, 2016; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Rogoff & Morelli, 1989; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006). Governmental policies single out students from non-White and lower socioeconomic backgrounds and describe these groups in terms of possessing negative traits being associated with lower school outcomes (Berliner, 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2007; Orfield & Lee, 2005; Reardon, 2011; Spatig-Amerikaner, 2012; Sawhill, 2013). Reports on school outcomes often showcase the disparate levels of measured academic achievement (often described as “achievement gaps”), high school graduation, and rates of college attendance between more diverse and economically disadvantaged students and more affluent, White peer groups (Greenwald et al., 1996; Lee & Burkham, 2002; Kamehameha Schools, 2009; NCES, 2013; Reardon, 2011). Lower levels of academic achievement are often connected to unequal possession of social and cultural resources resulting in a cycle of low

TEACHERS DECISIONS

educational attainment (Au et al., 2013; Berliner, 2005; Bowles & Gintis, 2014; Reardon, 2011), and research continues to demonstrate the negative educational outcomes for marginalized students as they are moved through a continued cycle of marginal access to educational, economic, political, and social resources (Barton & Coley, 2009; Berliner, 2005, 2014; Coleman, 1966; Lee & Burkam, 2002; Reardon, 2011). Because the narrative around culturally diverse and marginalized communities primarily paint these students within a negative light of deficiency or in need of support, policy serves to mechanisms that are perceived as valuable to saving students from these communities.

The Means and Mechanisms of Federal Education Policy

NCLB and *RTT*'s directives are responsible for reforming the education provided to diverse and marginalized students by public schools, and appear to be predicated on singular universal goal: preparing students for economic competition for scarce resources. The ways in which they intend to reach this goal appear to be founded on a singular organizing principle of accountability. To facilitate accountability, policies work off of directives, each using different educational mechanisms that operate as a standardized approach to pedagogy. These include the aforementioned actions of federal education policy and accountability reforms: (a) dictates universal goals; (b) steers the development of standardized academic objectives meant to support students reaching said goals; (c) requires research-based, curriculum developers to standardize the educational inputs (materials and instruction) to be delivered to students. (d) encourages ongoing data collections to monitor teachers' work in the classroom and to conform this to universal curriculum and evidence based instruction; (e) drives the standardization the assessments to measure students' academic performance; (f) evaluates students' academic performance and reports to the federal government, in order to justify additional rewards or

TEACHERS DECISIONS

receive increased structural adjustments. As mechanisms come together, they are explicitly focused on reforming the work of teachers, particularly their curriculum and instruction. As a result, these policy directives influence schools' operations and in turn the classroom decisions that teachers make in regards to curriculum and instruction.

Holding Schools Accountable as an Organizing Principle

To increase individual student measures of learning and equalize these learning and achievement outcomes across groups, the federal government utilizes a singular organizing framework for reforming public schools— accountability. Accountability is constructed as making sure that schools record and evaluate student academic performance and make necessary adjustments for improvement. This organizing principle of education policy operates to control the decisions and actions of public schools, and their teachers, to standardize the objectives, standardize the inputs, standardize the tools of measurement to make accurate corrective actions. These actions seek to constrain aspects of curriculum and instruction to increase student achievement as measured on standardized tests. When student performance is deemed to be inadequate, reforms work to increase regulatory pressures and provide new treatments to students who are perceived to be underperforming. Additionally, new reform mechanisms try to identify the gaps in fidelity and compliance within the cycle to make corrective actions meant to spur desired outcomes.

Organizational accountability is an approach for the effective treatment of an identified problem. Accountability reforms have contributed to creating a systematic way of approaching how education is delivered to solve the identified problem. By influencing states to monitor the performance of public schools, students who attend Title I schools must be treated by teachers using standardized mechanisms as a way to provide quality inputs that will increase student

TEACHERS DECISIONS

achievement (RTT, 2009). Above all, testing is the hallmark principle of this policy. Test scores are the normal and agreed upon value that communicates student performance and provides evidence by which schools can prove fidelity and compliance to the government that all students have met academic achievement targets. Federal education policy mandates that all students must be tested by standardized means. This empowers the government to make judgements about the performance and ascribe positive acknowledgments or prescribe additional reforms. The prominence given to students' academic performance signals to all public schools that the monitoring of students' academic performance is the foundation of federal educational improvement strategies, and that public schools must be held accountable.

Standardized Approach to Pedagogy

...the solution to the problem of academic underachievement tends to be constructed in primarily methodological and mechanistic terms dislodged from the sociocultural reality that shapes it. That is, the solution to the current underachievement of students from subordinated cultures is often reduced to finding the “right” teaching methods, strategies, or prepackaged curricula that will work with students who do not respond to so-called “regular” or “normal” instruction.

(Bartolome, 1994, p)

RTT (and other federal education policies) have been explicitly designed to implement mechanisms to increase student learning and achievement (ESEA, 2015; NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; Ravitch, 2013; McLaren, 2015; Goodwin, 2010). Within the whole of accountability reform, perhaps the biggest potential influence on teachers' curriculum and instruction has been the implementation of standardized pedagogical approaches. Policymakers have intently focused on the regulation of curriculum and instruction by mandating standardized pedagogical practices

TEACHERS DECISIONS

(Comber & Nixon, 2009; Sleeter, 2012; Tharp, 2006). These standardized approaches to pedagogy that reorient teaching around technorational educational mechanisms such as universal goals, common academic outcomes, prescribed and monitored curriculum and instruction, and standardized testing (Apple, 2005; Ball, 2003; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2006; Gerwitz & Ball, 2000; MacGuire & Ball, 1994; Smyth & Shacklock, 1998; Lipman, 2004; Pitzer, 2015).

Generally speaking, standardized pedagogy is the dominant approach to teaching endorsed by federal education policy and accountability reforms. Reforms highlight the utilization of standardized procedures to support and measure the performance of common academic skills on standardized tests (Elmore, 2002; ESSA, 2015; NCLB, 2002; Obama, 2014; Quality Counts, 2008; Ravitch, 2013; RTT, 2009;). Federal Education Policy does not explicitly advocate for a standardized pedagogical approach, but the mechanisms it deploys are designed to influence the performance of students and the work of teachers in such ways (ESEA, 1965, 1969, 2001, 2015; NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; ESSA, 2015).

The Reform of Teachers' Classrooms

These inputs, while allowing for some local locus of control, largely depend on the schools choosing curriculum and instruction to implement. For example, the decision of which text will be used in the classroom is largely out of the hands of the teachers (and, sometimes, even school administrator). In most cases, and especially in large districts, textbooks were chosen by individuals outside of the context in which they are implemented. Similarly, instructional strategies perceived to be effective are also largely named without teacher input. In large districts, one model of effective practice was chosen and then teacher evaluation protocols

TEACHERS DECISIONS

were developed in order to pressure teachers into being compliant with the instructional strategies and frameworks.

Federal education policy has stated that student performance on standardized tests is largely the responsibility of the school and the teacher, and more specifically, their curriculum and instruction. For example, President Barack Obama (2009) proclaimed that a teacher is the single most important variable in a student's education. At the school level, reforms attempt to hold teachers accountable as the single most important school based factor in students' performance and as the solution to closing achievement gaps (McCaffrey, Lockwood, Koretz, & Hamilton, 2003; Superfine, Gottlieb, & Smylie, 2012; Ziechner, Payne & Brayko, 2012). In the era of accountability, reformers posit that teachers who are considered to be highly-qualified take technical action deemed effective; thus, curriculum and instruction are the key to increased student performance on standardized assessments (Day et al., 2007; Haney et al., 1996; Harris & Sass, 2007; Rivers & Sanders, 2002; Tobin et al., 1994). Scholars question these claims by reformers whom they suggest make sense of teachers' role in a somewhat mythological fashion, with the teacher as the essential component in student success (Berliner & Glass, 2014; Hattie, 2003; Reeves, 2003).

The perpetuation of this myth keeps reformers focused on what Tharp (2006) claims is "the one final common pathway (of reform)-instructional activity" (p. 6). This has placed teachers in a challenging intermediary role as the interpreter of the regulative policies and the delivery person to its intended classroom target— students. Standardized approaches to teaching and learning have given way to mandated and uniformed educational mechanisms that inform aspects of teachers' practice across a range of culturally diverse, economically marginalized, and ecologically unique contexts. These now-everyday professional mechanisms include universal

TEACHERS DECISIONS

goals of college and career, common learning outcomes exemplified by Common Core State Standards (CCSS), prescriptive curriculums that dictate pacing and instructional strategies, and pernicious amounts of data collection and high-stakes standardized testing linked to evaluative and punitive judgments by governmental organizations. Together, these mechanisms amount to a standardized pedagogical framework within an accountable cycle of teaching based on equal, quality, and effective treatment of students regardless of their lived context.

The Universal Goal

Federal education policy is focused on what public schools and students can do to contribute to the economic viability of the country as a whole. Reformers argue that these policies are important for one universal reason: the increased achievement results provide increased opportunity to compete in economic markets, thereby reducing poverty and reliance on the States to provide supplemental social and academic resources. In RTT, the central purpose of federal reform efforts is constructed as student academic achievement leading to access to college and career by making students "college and career" ready. Through the systems created through accountability reform, low quality instruction is given to students and, as a result, it is argued that there is decreased opportunity for economic competition. Policy and policy makers have stated directly that the intent on holding schools accountable to equalize educational opportunities to allow students to succeed in college and careers leading to participation in global economic competition (Obama, 2009; RTT, 2009). The goal of the reform movement is to increase the level of student proficiency on academic tasks so that they can translate these skills into employment for economic benefit. It is argued that proficiency on standardized academic measures will result in increased outcomes of academic achievement measured as high school graduation and college attendance (NCLB, 2002). This is important because the view is that

TEACHERS DECISIONS

college and career are social activities linked to the procurement of global economic resources (Obama & Duncan, 2009). As such, the U.S. government is clear about the standardization academic performance, and subsequent assessment thereof, being explicitly linked to the economic rationale (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009).

Standardized Mechanisms

Accountability reforms use this model to operate a very explicit set of standardized educational mechanisms. In an effort to do this in an equalized fashion, curriculum and instruction are meant to be defined, delivered, and measured in a uniform and prescribed ways, so they can be scientifically proven to work or not work across all contexts (Au, 2011). Within *Race to the Top* (2009), many of these aspects are clearly defined, and what is not clearly defined is closely monitored. Educational mechanisms in RTT reforms that are universally defined and strictly controlled are objectives and tests. The universal objectives that school have to implement are Common Core State standards (CCSS). The tests that all RTT states had to use was developed by the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (SBAC).

The input mechanisms of accountability reform, though, are difficult to control and measure. Since the inputs are curriculum and instruction, they required a group of humans, notably school administrators and teachers, to implement them. In order to implement these inputs, decisions would have to be made by the states, districts, schools, and teachers. With that said, the accountability placed parameters on these inputs that forced states and districts to choose mostly uniform approaches to be used by teachers across their schools. One aspect of uniform input is the prescriptive curriculums across core subject areas from major textbook publishing companies like Orgio, Houghton Mifflin, McGraw-Hill, and Pearson. These were required by law to be research-based, evidence-based, and scientifically proven to be effective.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Another aspect of standardized inputs required states and district to choose a teacher-evaluation model based on scientific data that shows connections between instructional strategies and student performance on standardized measures of performance. These were often talked about as frameworks for effective pedagogy. Because these inputs were less controllable than the objectives and tools of measurement, data collection teams and data coaches were sent to monitor fidelity and compliance of schools to use uniform inputs in effective ways. These data teams used student performance data to make their claims. Based on these claims, schools made pivots in instruction to make sure that students are on the right course to achievement.

Universally normed and standardized objectives. Standards establish performance objectives for students to demonstrate. Common Core State Standards (CCSS) were adopted by all states who “won” monies from *RTT*. CCSS were designed as abstract and linear skills sets that would prepare students for college and career. Standards identify a set of clear, measurable, and ambitious set of performance standards for students across core subject areas. The design of standards is meant to build a university guideline, moving away from content guidelines that were decided upon by individual states. CCSS are used to define these skills in English and Mathematics, though the implementation has included efforts to identify standards in other core subjects across the curriculum, especially in science and social studies.

Critical perspectives on standardized objectives. Scholars have argued that standards are focused on the content of the curriculum and not necessarily the curriculum and pedagogy used to support the achievement of the standards (Porter, McMaken, Hwang, & Yang, 2011). Though it is said that, “standards intend to influence the assessed and enacted curriculum (Porter, et. al., 2011, p. 103).” As a result, the common standards movement has become a foundational element of teaching and learning. This has come as the federal government has put a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

considerable amount of resources into their adoption (Porter, et. al., 2011). Currently, common standards have been widely adopted across 42 of 50 individual states.

Standardized assessments. Students' performance of standard objectives is measured on standardized tests. This is a hallmark of the accountability strategy. The tests are normed assessment of students to ensure that they are meeting the expectations set out for them

Critical perspectives on standardized assessments. Tests are used to identify the schools that have students who are successful (or unsuccessful) in meeting common expectations and to encourage schools to improve student outcomes. Au (2007) argues, "high stakes" is when "results are used to make important decisions that affect students, teachers, administrators, communities, schools, and districts" (p. 258). While some scholars have argued that testing has minimally influenced the work of teachers, others, more critical of the testing regime, have suggested that it results in a narrowing of curriculum unable to meet the needs of diverse and marginalized students (Au, 2007, Lipman, 2004; Nichols & Berliner, 2005, 2007). Au's (2007) study of the way in which tests operate in schools concluded that testing appears to result in the exclusion of diverse content from the curriculum, often characterized as "teaching to the test".

The measurement of students by standardized tests does little to take into account historical, cultural, social, and ecological context of tests and their development or the development of students they measure, and some scholars argue it reinforces it (Au, 2010; Butler, 2002, Butler, 2007, Costagno & Brayboy, 2008; Ravitch, 2013). This included the reduction of contextualized content that was directly related to the standards which the test is predicated on, as well as an increased in pedagogic control over how teachers approached curriculum and instruction (Au, 2007).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Many scholars claim that a focus on standardized testing has resulted in detrimental effects for students of color (Au, 2010; Darling Hammond, 2007; McNeil, 2005). These measurements are often determined by students' performance on standardized tests, many of which have been argued to be biased against students from diverse, indigenous, and lower income communities (Clawson, 1981; Froese-Germain, 1999; Hilliard, 1979; Jencks & Phillips, 2011; Neill & Medina, 1989; Nowell & Hedges, 1999). The standardized tests are claimed to be biased and inaccurate, or at worst, racist (Claude & Steele, 1995; Gardener 1981, 2011; Gould 1996; Jacoby & Glauberman, 1997; Jenks & Phillips, 2011; Jensen, 1980; Kincheloe et al., 1997; Leyva, 2009; Selden, 1977). Similarly, critical perspectives on testing suggest the outcomes of narrow curricula primarily focused on technical academic skill sets play a role in the perpetuation of social inequality (Apple, 1995; Au, 2010). Testing is an expressly problematic mechanism of control deployed by Federal education policy (Au, 2010).

Prescribed curriculum. Generally speaking, Scripted curriculum materials are designed to influence the content, pacing, and delivery of curriculum and instruction to students.

Critical perspectives on prescribed curriculum. The use of scripted curriculums to influence teachers' classroom pedagogy has expanded significantly over the implementation of recent accountability reforms (Au, 2011; Ede, 2006; Kliebard, 2004). Critical scholars have constructed the script as an efficiency mechanism designed by gathering information about how to best complete specific tasks and thereby achieve the desired outcomes in an ordered fashion (Au, 2011; Kliebard, 2004). In this approach, teachers are required to use specific methods, with specific content in order to (reproduce previously proven scientific results (Au, 2011). In this way, teachers are reduced to efficiency managers who are concerned about the outcomes and the processes of curriculum and instruction, only considering the child as able or unable to achieve

TEACHERS DECISIONS

the prescribed result. This means a curriculum is broken down into defined inputs to be administered to students' minds. These defined inputs are rational and easily assessed (Au, 2011).

The frameworks derived from accountability reform offer a reduced set of prescriptive and research-based technical procedures associated with the standardization of curriculum and instruction (Bartolome, 1992, 2004; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Ball & Cohen, 1996, Ball, 2003; Giroux, 1992). Standardized approaches are described within federal policy initiatives as teaching practices that support of achieving standardized outcomes. The teaching of these skills is now being constructed on technorational terms within a new professionalism of the teaching and teachers (Apple, 1991; Ball 1996; Ball & Cohen, 1996). For example, teachers are often mandated to use specific curriculum and instruction developed by textbook publishers. These publishers develop, test, and sell curriculum materials to large districts such as New York, Texas, and California (Ball & Cohen, 1996; Goodlad, 1984). Once they are established as effective in these particular contexts, with their own unique cultural, socio-economic, and ecological diversity, they are then exported to smaller market areas and states. In this new and unique context, teachers are serving students with different culturally diversity, socioeconomic situations, and ecological environments. But, the curriculum and instructional methods as mandated by the accountability reforms remain the same.

Monitoring progress. Data collection and data coaches are the two most common aspects of the mechanisms of monitoring progress. Data miners visit schools and collect data to assess how well a school is being compliant with the proven curriculum and instruction. Data is used to direct the use of curriculum and instruction by teachers.

Critical perspective on monitoring progress standardizing judgement. For the most part, accountability reforms measure quality through this singular lens. Accountability reformers argue that low student performance means low quality education. Perceptions of low quality education set the stage for increased imposition of regulatory measures designed to increase the equality, efficiency, and quality of curriculum and instruction. Reform systems use the principle of sameness from which to evaluate students' tests scores. To control for this, accountability reforms require standardization across learning outcomes under the expectation that *all* students will achieve measured proficiency on a set of targeted skills within a given time frame (NCLB, 2002). How government entities measure whether equal and quality opportunity has been provided becomes the cycle of accountability.

Specifically, accountability singles out schools with student populations perceived to be disadvantaged and lacking essential economic resources. To ensure compliance, school systems are responsible for demonstrating these measures through a system of reporting that disaggregates data for aspects of cultural diversity and economic marginalization. As accountability operates, schools and their communities, are measured against one another and judged based on their performances. Then, schools are either acknowledged or correctively adjusted based on whether the student performances met predetermined goals. If schools are unable to prove that a full range of students have met the standardized goals, the schools are "subject to improvement, corrective action, and restructuring measures aimed at getting them back on course" (NCLB, 2002, p. 1). In this way, a failure to demonstrate students' proficient performance on standardized measures of learning lead to an increase in control of schools by the federal government through increased regulation. Federal policy approaches to accountability sought to equalize educational opportunities and/or experiences across contexts by

TEACHERS DECISIONS

addressing aspects of teachers' curriculum and instruction, and mostly in the subject areas of math, English Language Arts, and science (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009).

Examples of judgements rendered to schools based on student performance include schools being awarded a status of "Blue Ribbon School" to a judgement of failure in meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP), or the prescribed benchmark of student performance. While "Blue Ribbon" judgment is a positive result, bringing recognition and increased financial support, failure to meet AYP results in the federal government taking increased control of funding and further implementing regulatory action to "fully implement a new curriculum, including the provision of appropriate professional development for all relevant staff that is grounded in scientifically based research and offers substantial promise of improving educational achievement for low achieving students" (NCLB, 2002). So, if students perform, they are rewarded. If they do not, schools are punished.

Conclusion

Reforms impose powerful institutional ideas and language using a "central apparatus" of power to assert influence and control over teachers' everyday practices (Burch, 2009; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Lipman, 2007; Smith, 2005). In the current era of accountability, teachers in the United States have had to navigate accountability reforms impacting teachers' daily decisions in the classroom and influencing how they talk about their work (Au, 2007; Bien, 2013; Mintrop & Sunderman, 2009; Spillane, et. al, 2011; Zeprun, 2014). Reforms influence what curriculum materials teachers use (such as books and assessments), and mandated data-driven methods, uniform pacing, and prescribed activities (Biesta et al., 2015; Zeprun, 2014). As a result of these reforms, and the methods that they use to communicate their values, the ways in which we

TEACHERS DECISIONS

talk about education has changed (Bernstein, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2004, 2006; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996).

With the focus on data-driven decision making, standardized pedagogical approaches (that are based on specific historical, ideological, and theoretical foundations), are given credence over others. Because of this, teachers' work focuses on technocratic ways to efficiently manage educational processes so students achieve better results. These prescriptive mechanisms reduce teacher autonomy and professionalism by restructuring teachers' actions as a set of technical and performative procedures (Ball, 1992, 2003; Bartolome, 1994). All the while, these mechanisms operate beneath veiled rhetoric of equality and excellence. This veil cloaks criticisms of the foundations of accountability reforms (Burch, 2009; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Pitzer, 2015; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2006, Delpit, 1995; Fine, 1992; Fine & Ruglis, 2009; Sturgis, 2015).

Reforms operate from an assumption that specific instructional mechanisms are mandated, they will control for teachers' practice for the purpose of making it more effective (Paine & Zeichner, 2012). These directives, when implemented with compliance and fidelity, are seen as the rationalized, singular way to reach the predetermined goals (Ball, 1994; Day et al., 2007). As such, accountability reform is heavily critiqued as an apparatus that controls how public education is delivered to culturally diverse and economically marginalized students (Ball, 1999, 2003; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Lipman, 1997, 2006, 2007; Smith, 2005). Accountability reforms have significantly influenced the work of teachers (Ball, 2003; Hursh, 2005; Pinar, 2012), and those critical of reforms suggest that accountability has done little to improve pedagogy (Goodman, 2012; Goodwin, 2010). Significant questions remain as to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

whether these approaches limit teacher's ability to utilize diverse pedagogical approaches (Osborne, 1996; Tharp et al., 2000).

Standardized curricular decisions are the practical drivers for policies to achieve their ends. From their origin in ideas to their implementation in the classroom, these mechanisms are the rubber of the federal policy meeting the road of practice, where reform ideas gain traction on a student's path to learning. While some scholars have argued that accountability reforms have been effective in raising students' test scores, increasing college attendance, and creating more opportunity for students to engage in gainful employment, there has been outcry from a significant number who suggest that accountability reforms are extremely problematic. Many scholars perceive the localized implementation of federal policy to be a techno-rational managerial approach to public education that mandate mechanisms and restrict teachers' professional practices (Apple, 2007; Darling-Hammond & Wise, 1985; Dougherty, 1991; Fang, 1996; Sleeter, 2008, 2009, 2012; Smith & Miller-Kahn, 2004). These mechanisms are derived from a limited selection of scientifically concocted strategies for curriculum and instruction "proven" to be effective in remedying specific deficiencies in student learning (Burch, 2009).

In an effort to address perceived deficits, governmental policies advocate for increased control and standardization over curriculum and instruction in schools, and continue to propagate a narrative that the teacher, with their decisions for curriculum and instruction, is the singular most important in-school variable that should be controlled for using these uniform and scientifically rationalized mechanisms of teaching and learning. The standardized pedagogies supported by these policies are founded on questionable histories, neoliberal aims, and technorational theoretical principles that drive the universal application of curriculum and instruction across educational contexts (Dahlberg, Moss, & Pence, 1999).

CHAPTER 4: LITERATURE ON EDUCATION POLICY - A FOUNDATIONAL POINT

Faced with any difficult problem of life we set our minds at rest sooner or later by the appeal to the school. We are convinced that education is the one unfailing remedy for every ill to which man is subject...we even speak glibly and often about the general reconstruction of society through the school. We cling to this faith in spite of the fact that our schools, instead of directing the course of change, are themselves driven by the very forces that are transforming the rest of social order.

(Counts, 1978, p. 1)

Foundations of Education Policy and Reform

Federal education reform directives, aims, and mechanisms are often explicitly stated, implemented, and openly criticized. Yet, when considering other aspects of reform, such as its political, historical, ideological, and theoretical foundations, generally speaking, that is not clearly articulated. While some argue that federal policy had little influence over the organization and operations of public schools until the mid 1900s (Kantor, 1991; McGuinn, 2006, 2015), investigations into historical contexts surrounding the emergence of universal and compulsory schooling, and in particular schooling for diverse and marginalized people, reveals policy rife with conceptual connections to contemporary reforms. This includes a variety of racist, colonial, and oppressive discourses emerging from specific political and historical contexts (Artiles, 2003; Bartolome, 2004; Gonzalez et al., 2006).

In this chapter, I argue that the foundations of education policy are rendered opaque by a social perception that naively constructs the work of schools as purely a "good thing." Many public constructions of education take for granted that public schools are available to all students in U.S. society, and rarely question how public schools originated. In unpacking some of the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

more problematic considerations made, I present literature from critical scholarship that explains how the foundations of federal education policy can be perceived as beginning in specific, yet questionable places, ideas, and people. The chapter rests on one salient point— behind the development of federal education policy are hidden and questionable foundations of public schooling (Cole, 1996; Engestrom & Miettinen, 1999; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Pacheco, 2010; Prucha, 1990). This is also the case that links to aspects of one of the most egregious examples of federal policy implemented in diverse and marginalized contexts— the United States government use of policy in the Native American context.

Operating Policy Under a Veil

Standardized mechanisms of policy operate beneath an ideological veil and within a discursive web of discourse (Bartolome, 2004; Burch, 2009; Butler, 1999; Chibulka & Boyd, 2003; Giroux, 1992; Spring, 2008). As policy permeates social structures and institutions, aspects of its rhetoric, ideology, and theory become encoded in discourse, procedures, and practices; and, becomes potentially unnoticeable (Chomsky, 1987; Burch, 2009; Butler, 1999; Gordon & Whitty, 1997; Pacheco, 2010; Uljens, 2007). As such, the everyday language of practice remains representative of intentions situated within the nexus of policy (Artiles, 2003; Bartolome, 1994; Burch, 2009; Butler, 1999). Federal education policy operates using specific ideology and theory to reinforce social structures, thereby reproducing inequality (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Diamond, 2007; Diamond & Spillane, 2004; Hursh, 2007; Karen, 2005).

Aspects of the foundations on which accountability reform is built have been exposed as questionable ways to organize public education, and for a number of reasons. These foundations include:

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- Political rhetoric claiming that the lack of academic performance in public schools constitutes a national economic and security crisis (Berliner, 2014; Kliebard, 1995; Ravitch, 2012);
- Historical examples of ideas used for the development of mass education for the assimilation of diverse and marginalized peoples (Kliebard, 1995; Nieto, 2005; Spring, 2016; Tejada, Espinoza & Gutiérrez, 2003);
- Examples of policies and practices in indigenous contexts are colonial (Anderson, 1988; Au, 2011; Dennis, 1995; Leyva, 2009; Spring, 2016; Tienken, 2013);
- Neoliberal ideologies that built on singular rationales (Apple, 1995, 2000, 2005; Burch, 2004; Lipman 2009; McLaren, 2005);
- Reductionary theoretical orientations based on uniformity (Bartolome, 1994, 2004; Kincheloe, 2004);
- And, a continued skepticism as to whether accountability reforms work to support diverse and marginalized learners (Ball, 2009; Burch, 2009; Lipman, 2004; Pacheco, 2010).

Why We Must Confront Hidden Aspects of the Foundations of Education Policy

Due to the great mix of actors in educational policy discourse, including policymakers, administration, teachers, and students, as well as the inherent unequal power dynamics between them, scholars advocate for a transparent critique of policy to uncover the foundations (Apple, 1999; Apple & Weis, 1983; Freire & Shor, 1986). In doing so, this chapter presents more nuanced aspects of the foundations in order to make explicit some of the questionable origins of policy and disrupt the credibility of their purposeful implementation in schools. An explicit confrontation, on clear terms, acknowledges ideological and theoretical concepts at the foundation of education policy presents them in transparent fashion alongside language from

TEACHERS DECISIONS

historical policy development and the implementation of universal, compulsory public schooling for all (including Native populations), the idea that schools are simply a mechanism for social equality is problematized.

In the day to day work of schools, and within the language of teachers, the ideological and theoretical foundations of policy are not explicit. In order to make these aspects explicit, I discuss them in terms of the political and historical foundations of U.S. federal education policy. Exposing the policy veil illuminates the true aims of policy, and places the rationality from which policy operates, including its dominant and colonial perspectives, within a historical and contemporary matrix of power—one that is perceived to obfuscate professional and public dissent (Burch, 2009; Butler, 1999; Harvey, 2005). When examined through their historical and political contexts and foundations (rather than as apolitical constructs), it appears dominant policy and accountability reforms act in neocolonial fashions, being either are disconnected from, or completely disregarding, students' lived contexts (Bartolome, 2004; Deschenes, Cuban, & Tyack, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Jimenez, 2000; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992; Pacheco, 2010).

As the educational foundations of accountability reform focus on addressing the crisis of poverty and unequal human opportunity, policy itself fails to be transparent about its emergence from a historical time period when politicians founded policy on racist perceptions of culturally diverse peoples, used policy as a way to change a perceived inferior cultural identity to address what has been constructed as foundational issues leading to marginalized peoples' economic poverty. Making the foundations of education policy more visible and tangible provides the opportunity to name and engage democratically and consciously with the more problematic elements (Bartolome, 2004; Freire, 1990; Pacheco, 2010). These perspectives illuminate

TEACHERS DECISIONS

questionable aspects of the historical, ideological, and theoretical foundations of education reform. Shrouded beneath the language of policy and politics, are questions of whether or not these approaches to pedagogy are in the best interest of those they aim to serve.

When examined through historical contexts (and beyond the pale of political rhetoric) it appears foundations of dominant policy and accountability reforms are either disconnected from or disregard students' lives in diverse and marginalized contexts (Deschenes et al., 2001).

Alongside others, I argue that standardized pedagogies undervalue meaningful connections between the curriculum and student's lives (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Nieto, 2004; Ravitch, 2012; Sobel, 2004). Standardized pedagogies neglect a multiplicity of factors in a student's life that have the potential to support or hinder their academic achievement (Coleman, 1966; Berliner, 2005; Berliner et al., 2014; Deschenes et al., 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Jenks, 1972; Moll et al., 1992; Thomson, 2002). This fails to acknowledge substantial research to suggest that contextualized pedagogies founded on valuing student's culture, socioeconomic status, and ecological relationships, contribute to learning, academic success, and educational attainment (Au & Jordan, 1981; Deschenes et al., 2001; Gay, 2000, 2001, 2002; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Lee & Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; Moll et al., 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi, 1993, 2003).

Use of Critical Scholarship in Exploring Policy

I use critical scholarship to consider the deleterious foundations of reforms, as well as how they operate in transreductionary ways in diverse and marginalized contexts (Au, 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ravitch, 2012; Wright, 1997). Critical perspectives acknowledge the idea that these policies may actually work to reinforce social structures, thereby reproducing inequality (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Diamond, 2007; Diamond & Spillane, 2004; Hursh, 2007;

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Karen, 2005). These perspectives illuminate questionable aspects of the historical, ideological, and theoretical foundations of these policies, hidden beneath the language of policy and politics. This brings into question whether or not these approaches to pedagogy are in the best interest of those they aim to serve and in the eventuality that investigations that identify themes and concepts can place ideology and theory in the forefront of dialogue.

Accountability reforms focus on fixing identified (and, at times, manufactured) social crises by helping people perceived to be most in need. In the case of federal education policy, a needy population is developed from information on students' inability to demonstrate standardized measures of academic performance on tests or achieve predetermined goals of college and career. As a result, education decision makers lack a more holistic picture of accountability reforms. This results in naive, uncritical, and panoptic narratives that schooling is a fair and benevolent way what some may perceive as correcting and saving students who have been categorized as culturally diverse and economically marginalized by helping them find academic success leading to economic liberty (Alexander, 2000; Apple, 2001; Freire, 1997; Giroux, 1992; Guilfoyle, 2006; Hodgkinson, 1991; Hursh, 2007; Sleeter, 1992; Sunderman et al., 2005; Tyack & Cuban, 1995)

The Politics and Policies of Failing Schools

Former U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan shared his perspective on what great teaching is in a speech in 2009, stating, "I believe that education is the civil rights issue of our generation. And, if you care about promoting opportunity and reducing inequality, the classroom is the place to start. Great teaching is about so much more than education; it is a daily fight for social justice (Duncan, 2009)." While this and subsequent political rhetoric posits the role of reforms, including recent NCLB and RTT, as a means of fixing systems of education failures to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

provide quality education leading to equal economic opportunity for diverse and marginalized students, it has also included significant connections to national political interests (Berliner, 2014; Kliebard, 1995; Ravitch, 2012). This often stands as a reliance on a political climate that blames public education for being unable to fix perceived (according to measurements on standardized tests) deficiencies in culturally diverse and marginalized people and contribute to national definitions of success. Federal policy towards changing how schools deliver education to diverse and marginalized students is a part of larger attempt by the federal government to address complex sociopolitical issues. While more recent rhetoric tends to focus on poverty reduction and the fair distribution of socioeconomic resources, including social justice (Duncan, 2009), the origins of contemporary education reform and the increased role of the federal government in local schools is often attributed to national interests.

Education Policy for Cold War Defense of the Nation-State

The 1950s was a time period when politicians felt education was tied to geopolitical and market interests. Politicians raised awareness around struggling schools by claiming that the United States was engaged in the competitive political and technological struggle with the Soviet Union known as "Space Race." At this time, the federal government chose the launching of the Soviet Sputnik space vessel as a signifier of an international knowledge contest from which the winner would be an example (to the world) of academic and technological superiority. For this reason, the U.S. Congress passed the National Defense of Education act in 1958. This policy allowed the federal government an opportunity to influence how local schools operated, influencing their decisions and perceptions. As Flemming (1960) notes, it was designed to "help states solve those problems that bear upon the national needs and that surpass the state's capabilities to resolve them unaided" (p. 133).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

According to the federal government, students' progress on these measures of learning and achievement are of grave importance to our national interests. The Defense of Education Act was specifically focused on the development of "mental resources and technical skills" and dealing with "the most disturbing problems of the day...that force able young men and women to withdraw from...or discontinue their education (Flemming, 1960, p. 135). This policy signifies the development of contemporary education reform as based on national interests and constructed within global trends of maintaining competitiveness amongst foreign nations in core subjects of literacy, math and science. While its most immediate concerns were for the development of technical skills to support defense initiatives and increase student participation in higher education, it was also the emergent shifting of power towards the federal funding and control of public schools for the purpose of national security (Cohen, 1996). These shifts began a renewed a focus on a return to basics, often considered mathematics and English.

Education Policy, the Great Society, and War on Poverty

While federal education policy began outlining its purpose in militaristic terms written into the 1958 National Defense of Education Act (NDEA) to encourage competition with foreign superpowers, namely Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), it later changed its focus to domestic social policy. Interestingly, in the transition, federal policy kept its militant jargon by claiming the purpose of the policy was to engage in a "War on Poverty." The passing of Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was the foundational policy document used to frame the "War on Poverty," using the schoolhouse and mechanisms of reform in an effort to solve the problem of academic underperformance from low income and non-White students. Federal funding for elementary and secondary public schools became focused on developing standardized educational approaches that ensure the fairness and equality of educational

TEACHERS DECISIONS

opportunity “that provide students with the chance to succeed.” The desired result was an equality of the educational outcomes thereby creating sameness in performance between students coming from low-income and high-income communities. In the end, policymakers claim that educational outcomes of learning and achievement are the most important indicators of students’ ability to compete for college entrance and good jobs, and also, essential factors for the nation to compete in a globalized economy (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009).

Soon thereafter, the general attention to education as a means of global competition shifted towards rhetoric that suggested a need for increased amounts of equality and opportunity across educational contexts leading to economic mobility, thereby addressing neglected and underperforming populations being served by public schools. The federal policy began to argue for a change in the plight of diverse and marginalized people to advance individual financial progress thereby benefiting American nation-state (ESEA, 1965; Goals 2000, 1994). Lyndon B. Johnson's idea of the "great society" set in motion the education policy reform Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA). This was, perhaps, the single most important piece of federal legislation concerning education, both because of its focus and the fact that it changed the federal role in public education (Kantor, 1991). At this time, federal policy began to centralize its focus on diverse and marginalized students, and "make the problems of the poor the nation's number one priority." (Murphy, 1971, p. 36). The federal government used ESEA to steer governmental efforts to deploy its resources and power to "attack poverty at its root cause" by regulating the work done in schools in an effort to create more equal educational opportunities for all American students, regardless of culture, ethnicity, gender, disability, or social class, and eliminate poverty (Kantor, 1991).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

ESEA focused on the development of federal standards that held schools accountable and provide appropriate funding (Kantor, 1991). Insomuch, federal policy began to influence school priorities and ways of approaching education for diverse and marginalized students (Kantor, 1991). ESEA developed a significant emphasis on the official federal designation called Title I (Kantor, 1991). Title I became the primary policy mechanism for identifying and funding low performing schools serving diverse and marginalized students. Title I sought to award funding to schools and communities experiencing economic hardship, allowing "the local school districts [to] identify eligible educationally deprived children, determine their needs, design programs to meet them, and apply to the appropriate state department of education for approval" (Murphy, 1971, p. 39). However, the ESEA included a caveat to ensure that these programs met basic criteria as determined by the federal Department of Education (DOE).

This legislation was linked to a larger political agenda that focused on expanding educational opportunity to neglected communities (Kantor, 1991). The policy was initially designed as a part of a broad movement for civil rights and social welfare legislation to equalize the funding of school programming and the alleviation of the negative educational impacts caused by a lack of access to economic resources (ESEA, 1965; Kantor, 1991; McGuinn, 2006, 2015). Federal Funding for education expanded significantly under this change in policy that shifted the power center for regulating public schools towards federal jurisdiction (Kantor, 1991). Within ESEA, much of the power and funding is centralized in Title I. Title I justifies the provision of "Financial Assistance To Local Educational Agencies For The Education Of Children Of Low-Income Families" (ESEA, 1965). Through Title I, ESEA allotted states finances to develop "school-wide" and "targeted" educational programs to raise the academic achievement of the "educationally deprived" (ESEA, 1965).

A Nation in an Educational Crisis

The goals of federal education policy, originating in ESEA, received political emphasis over the course of the last 30 years. The call for education reform gained momentum just years after the National Commission for Excellence in Education published its now infamous report, "A Nation at Risk." At this time, the political movement that attacked the depravity of public schools and called for an all-out overhaul of how we envisioned and provided public education (Berliner, 1996). The biggest problem for federal policymakers was exemplified in the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report *A Nation at Risk* (1983).

In the report (1983) educational leaders and politicians laid claim that the United States was in the greatest crisis in public education—America was losing its preeminent standing in the world. The reason for this, as articulated in the report, is that some groups of students not performing at an acceptable academic level. The report decreed low levels of academic performance as the reason for losing footing in the global economic market against other countries around the world (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983). The report claimed that once the public would become informed of the crisis of performance, its individual and international consequences, and, alongside the right way to organize education, the public would be sure to act (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983). The right actions taken would be in the name of U.S. international preeminence in industry, military, science, and economics (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983). *A Nation at Risk* (1983) defined the five basic areas of study to be learned by all students, including math, English, science, social studies, and technology. Rigorous and effective (as demonstrated via results on standardized tests) curriculum instruction would function as the vehicle to address this measure. The test results from the standardized measures of evaluation would then be normed to make college entrance requirements more challenging.

Doubling Down on Holding Schools Accountable

The federal government has both continued and reaffirmed calls for overhauling American schools focused on making students competitive in a global marketplace (Burch, 2009; Giroux & Giroux, 2006; Harvey, 2005). Reforms tried to increase focus on the accountable provision of basics of math and English, and the measuring of these by standardized testing that resulted in the ability to compare results across educational contexts (Bennett, 1988). The results would allow for the increased reform and improvement efforts to provide all students with an equal and quality, uniform common core curriculum to be implemented across all schools (Bennett, 1988). As William Bennett (1988), the former U.S. secretary of Education, claims, curriculum and instruction should result in "a shared body of knowledge and skills, a common language of ideas, and a common moral and intellectual discipline" (p. 24) would be founded on "the central tenets of the Western political tradition remain the curriculum's heart" (p. 27).

The common curriculum for a common purpose has been advocated for by politicians. The recent presidential administrations of Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, and Barack Obama have all sought to increase standards and accountability by requiring the implementation of the common curriculum. Politicians use quality instruction as a way to ensure equal educational opportunity leading to individual and national economic success in a competitive global economy. Reform efforts claim do this by focusing on the key areas of raising expectations for all students to achieve rigorous standards, measure students' performance, invest in strategies that have been proven effective, and increasing accountability to drive students' proficient performance the standards (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; White House Archives). In doing so, politicians declare how reforms address what they perceive as the primary issues; student learning, as measured by low test scores; and student achievement, as measured by high school

TEACHERS DECISIONS

graduation rates (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; White House Archives). They claim to have addressed this issue by investing significant federal resources in America's economic future by implementing universally high standards in core subjects of math and English coupled with accountability measures linked to high stakes standardized testing (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; White House Archives). They assert to have achieved their goals by increasing the quality of instruction by instituting systems of teacher development (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; White House Archives). Further, the general thrust of their efforts are located in providing the increase of investment from Title I funds into low performing schools serving students from low-income communities (NCLB, 2002; RTT, 2009; White House Archives):

The goal of the program was ambitious: to bring together leaders from every level of school governance — from classroom teachers to state-level officials — to develop plans that would help prepare students for success in an information- and innovation-driven job market, where a quality education is essential both to national economic strength and to individual opportunity

(RTT Executive Summary, 2015, p. iv)

As federal education policy evolved through the latter half of the 20th century, schools were viewed as a site from which to rectify cultural and economic challenges (Spring, 2000). This led to an uptick in pressures on policy-making structures to design solutions for diverse and marginalized communities. While many political actors acknowledge social justice in public rhetorical fashion, few policies exist in their administrations that provide concrete strategies for achieving it. By the 1980s the accountability movement, with its diverse range of powerful political actors, became the dominant orientation towards schooling efforts to help high poverty and low performing students.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Connections between the foundations of accountability reform to classroom practice are situated in a context of nearly 40 years of a singular federal approach to education policy. This approach is epitomized by the signing into law of *No Child Left Behind* legislation introduced in 2001. This landmark reform was ushered in just three days after Republican President George Walker Bush took office. The act easily passed through bipartisan Congress with more than 90% of all voting members in favor of its regulatory procedures. It passed with essentially no social or political dissent (Hess, 2006). It appeared as if everyone agreed, from citizens to parents to politicians, that schools were in a crisis and that students and their teachers needed to be held accountable to demonstrate academic achievement, regardless of the context they worked in. NCLB's biggest advocate, Democrat Ted Kennedy, proclaimed that the legislation was the single most important act to increase democracy, liberty, and freedom for marginalized groups in the USA. (US Department of Education Executive Summary, 2009). NCLB quickly became the most prominent educational law to legitimate and regulate powerful government oversight of local schools.

George W. Bush, the signatory of NCLB, referred to diverse and marginalized students as the "vulnerable," "inner-city" children "whose parents don't speak English as a first language," and are the "easiest to forget about" (Bush, 2007). NCLB solidified the U.S. federal approach as framed by the drive for accountability. Accountability relies on high stakes testing as the dominant measure of whether schools are effective in their programming. The results of these tests are linked to a series of structural adjustment programs and a network of rewards and punishments designed to ensure that schools increase student achievement to universal proficiency. These programs utilize theoretical orientations of scientific rationalism, founded on desires for uniformity, to regulate teachers' work. Programs implemented by schools have

TEACHERS DECISIONS

resulted in mandated practical mechanisms that include: universal goals, common objectives, prescribed curriculum, regulated instruction, and high stakes testing. These mechanisms, based on directives, founded on ideology and theory, amount to a standardized approach to pedagogy. The accountability reforms are supported by political rhetoric that claims public schools are in crisis, and not living up to their ameliorative role as the great social equalizer.

Rhetoric at the foundation of policy appears to be specifically designed to act as an alert for the American public to the threat of underperforming schools and the students who learn in them (Berliner, 1995; Ravitch, 2013). In developing standards of achievement, education reform articulates that some students and communities are unable to measure up against their more affluent and Whiter peers. In order to develop their talents (and contribute to American superiority) these students need higher expectations and tougher standards, but due to a range of social factors, schools are not able to provide this. As a result of this narrative, many citizens continue to perceive the school system as broken (Berliner, 1995; Biddle & Berliner, 2014; Ravitch, 2012). By the late 1990s and early 2000s, over 80% of the general public believed that we had to do something to fix the problem of our failing schools (Johnson & Duffett, 2003). This fire of discontent continues to be echoed in news media on an annual basis, as proclamations the Program for International Assessment (PISA) test scores regularly portray U.S. schools in a lower tier in comparison to other developed countries and international counterparts. Meanwhile, we are also told that White and affluent Americans rank equal to their peers, but are being held back as a whole due to achievement gaps between them and diverse and marginalized student populations. Diane Ravitch (2012) provides clear evidence to this problem with the “other,” when she describes that 80% of American people feel public schools are

TEACHERS DECISIONS

failing, while 80% of the same people think the schools in their own community are doing a great job (Ravitch, 2012).

Schools as the Great Equalizer

The 1900s political contexts that gave rise to federal accountability reform of public schools have historical roots and connections to ways of thinking about public education that evolved from its inception, and at a more local and nascent level. One of the grand narratives behind the school reform movement is a political and public sentiment that schools are the most appropriate social institutions to solve issues of inequity and deal with the issues of students who don't perform to the standardized norms expected by society (Deschenes et al., 2001). This persists even in the face of overwhelming evidence that socioeconomic and political factors present in students' lives are strongly correlated with academic achievement and educational attainment (Deschenes et al., 2001). This narrative persists even though there is little actual evidence that all students will achieve normed levels of academic achievement measured as universal proficiency on standardized testing (Darling-Hammond, Noguera, Cobb & Meier, 2007; Guilfoyle, 2006; Noddings, 2005). Even though a plethora of educators from multicultural and critical perspectives have claimed that current policies and practices that attempt to provide equal, uniform education to all maintain the status quo associated with cultural incompatibility between students and schools; and vestiges of an assimilationist past (Adams, 1995; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Goodlad, 1984; Kincheloe, 2008; Ladson-Billings, 2015; Spring, 2003, 2008, 2017; Tharp, 2006; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995).

The sentiment that schools are the great equalizer of social conditions comes from the era in which universal and compulsory education emerged. In the mid-1800s, Horace Mann, who was considered among the first prominent advocate of both compulsory school and school

TEACHERS DECISIONS

effectiveness reforms, proclaimed that public schools were " the great equalizer" (Katz, 1968). His ideas envisioned a society driven by social institutions that, when universally and uniformly applied created an equal social opportunity for all based on the merits of one's own faculty and character (Katz, 1968). Mann (1868) believed schools, as many others were beginning to argue at the time, were perfect mechanisms through which to achieve these ends). A uniform and quality education, according to Mann, is the way for all individuals in society to develop properly, reach a higher social and educational potential, avoid "the horrors of barbarism" located in "vicious parentage and evil domestic associations" (p. 10). According to Mann (1868), universal schooling allowed for individuals to get out of poverty, identify with universal Christian truths, avoid the pitfalls of criminality, integrate into the mainstream of society, and succeed to individual, appropriate, and developed levels social and financial independence.

Universal Academic Basics for All

Horace Mann advocated for schools to take a diverse population of students, who in principle were presumed to be created equal, and provide them the opportunity to prove their merits (Tienken, 2013). In order to arrive at a place where social equality and merit could be realized, Mann (1868) advocated for the focus on the universal teaching of basic skills of reading, writing, arithmetic, and a common scientific knowledge. In an interesting juxtaposition, he characterized fictional literature and narrative stories as novelties that wasted opportunities for the advancement of public school students who are expected to compete for scarce socio-economic resources with the more educated elites (Mann, 1868). He was deeply invested in the idea that essential academic skills sets provided the individual with the opportunity to compete for economic liberty and, as he states he wanted that to be deeply ingrained in the masses, "stronger feelings and firmer convictions of the importance of our Common Schools are taking

TEACHERS DECISIONS

possession of the public mind; and, where they have not yet manifested themselves in any outward and visible improvement, they are silently and gradually working to that end” (p. 1).

Schools as a Means of Assimilation

The evolution and expansion of compulsory, universal education from this period is designed on an industrial model of education for the assimilation of the individual (particularly those considered deviant from the hegemony) into a devout, capital producing citizen (Apple, 1995; Au, 2011; Evans & Davies, 2014; Lipman 2004; Smith 2004). The emergence of mass schooling was predicated on principles of equal provision of educational opportunity. This includes linearly structured curriculums, uniform notions of student development and progress, uniform notions of hard work. the idea that institutions can accurately measure students’ ability to achieve to the standards set forth by policymakers as desirable, and the monitoring of student deliverable outcomes (Apple, 1995; Au, 2011; Evans & Davies, 2014; Tyack, 1976). This construction of education as the great equalizer is predicated on measures of individual citizens realizing economic potential and opportunity vis-a-vis the perceived waste of human capital through under education (Tyack, 1976).

Tyack (1974) argued that the development of schools at this time was a systematic process to control the perceived inferiority of students who subverted the standard or normed expectation of truth in Christianity, by inculcating the value of universal academic achievement and the spoils of subsequent economic productivity. Goodlad (1984) suggests this reform ideology evolved in the late 19th century when traditional constructions of family and community were being transformed by the fear of cultural diversity stoked by urbanization and immigration. Strike & Soltis (2004) argue that the era produced the notion that, “public schools have tried hard to make us one, or behave as though we were already one, and that one was often Protestant,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

White, and Northern European. Others were to be remade into this model or to accommodate to it, or they were simply excluded” (p. 78). In this way, the role of public schools was to assimilate diverse and marginalized people into the American ideals of Christianity, individual economic independence, and unified social progress.

Standardized Testing as the Measure of Mann

In an effort to ensure that public schools efficiently took on this task in a quality way, Mann is credited with originating the use of standardized testing in schools (Tyack, 1974). Embedded in the idea of holding schools accountable for uniform education for social progress, the myth of school as a social mechanism for equalization arose to hide its structural division of students into various groups in what amounts to little more than social Darwinism (Au, 2011; Dennis, 1995; Deschenes et al., 2001; Leyva, 2009). At the time, reform, armed with testing mechanisms, allowed for the characterization of diverse and marginalized students as deficient and underdeveloped. Narrow definitions of academic success resulted in a narrowing of the curriculum and a deskilling of the people (Au, 2011). This often reinforced social and structural inequities regularly acknowledged but rarely addressed. Historians have argued that testing became the mechanism deployed by schools as a means of social control and social engineering (Au, 2011; Tyack, 1974).

Standardization as a Means of Social Engineering

Historically speaking, the purpose of education that evolved from the development of compulsory education focused on the socialization of individuals into the mainstream values of society, under the assumption that education will alleviate (or eliminate) the social problems associated with culture and poverty (Kliebard, 1995; Nieto, 2005; Spring, 2016; Tejada et al., 2003). A foundation was built on the questionable development of compulsory education in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

relationship to social equalization and social engineering. This is problematic, given that foundations of mass schooling contain racialized and dehumanized perceptions of non-White and marginalized people as possessing genetic inferiorities and cultural depravities— as people in stages of scientific underdevelopment and in need of paternal and oppressive power dynamics to look out for their own best interests (Artiles, 2003; Bartolome, 2004; Nieto, 2005; Tejada et al., 2003).

Mass Schooling as a Means of Social Darwinism

The development of a uniform and universal common education, arriving at a place to hold schools and individuals accountable to standardized measures of achievement, can be viewed as a mechanism of social engineering (Au, 2011). Critical scholarship claims that schools have been used as a means of social engineering predicated on eugenicist ideas evolved from Charles Darwin's cousin, Sir Francis Galton (Keynes, 1993). This ideological background argues for a society, and its institutions, that should aim to create the best standard of human as can possibly be achieved (Jensen, 2002; Leyva, 2009). Galton paved the way for standardized testing as he was one of the originators of the application of evolutionary theory and the use of statistics for measuring aspects of people's intelligence through social institutions (Keynes, 1993). This idea is alive and well in contemporary times as evidenced by Herrnstein and Murray's (1994) pseudoscience contribution *The Bell Curve: Intelligence and Class Structure in American Society* (Dennis, 1995; Shor, 1999). As a result, compulsory school and achievement testing continue to be mechanisms through which the testing of individual's intellectual capacity could identify, and alleviate perceived deficiencies.

Galton's (1869) theory rested on intelligence being an inherited and predetermined trait. Galton was intent on establishing practices that went beyond measuring people and advocated

TEACHERS DECISIONS

for the organization of institutions and society based on people's intelligence, which he considered the most valuable predictor of moral virtue as well as the value of individuals to society (Simonton, 2003). He worked to establish measures that conceptualized the linear development of students. Once a linear understanding was developed, genetic capacities could be evaluated more thoroughly and accurately after transmission of standardized inputs to all students. He argued in his seminal text *Hereditary Genius* (1869) that by classifying men based on their merits, often these measures against a linear scale, was a way to identify men of higher capacity (and thereby eliminating the threat of inferiority). The easiest way was to provide egalitarian-based training opportunities to all students, and henceforth measure students' capacity for the retention of skills (post-equalized training). He used this position as a means of identifying "men of time," whom he perceived as eminently better than others and later argued for a social policy of eugenics (a term he coined) in *Inquiries into Human Faculty and Its Development* (1883). In this text, he said humans could be selected to provide race-based and "scientifically proven" genetic inputs to others through breeding. These inputs would lead to a higher standard and quality of the individual. These individuals would then rid society of social problems and the feebleness of those unable to rise to the expectations of the hegemony.

Eugenics and social Darwinism emerged as an ideological and theoretical framework deployed by governmental and social institutions in the latter part of the 19th and early parts of the 20th centuries in an attempt to correct social problems caused by deviant or marginalized groups (Dennis, 1995; Selden, 2002; Stoskoff, 2002; Tienken, 2013). This movement, predicated on its ability to provide accurate testing to inform social policy, gained social acceptance among the upper class and elite White Americans who were fearful of diverse and marginalized people (Stoskoff, 2001, 2002). Furthermore, "survival of the fittest" perceptions

TEACHERS DECISIONS

viewed diverse and marginalized peoples as deficient and, thus, their worth in both individual economic prosperity as well as the general economic conditions of society was extrapolated from these views (Stoskoft, 2002).

As American populations grew from immigration and diversified along cultural and economic lines, cities grew alongside the demands of industrialization and society required skilled workers to complete a range of tasks. Often, new immigrants and those economically marginalized were singled out by social elites for an education that was meant to preserve a social order (Kliebard, 2004). At that time, "Eugenic ideology worked its way into the education reform movement of the 1910s and 1920s, playing a key role in teacher training, curriculum development, and school organization" (Stoskoft, 2002, p. 47). This led to reformers advocating for specific knowledge, skill, and value sets, while many educators attempted to standardize methods of schooling, particularly in light of an uneducated and under-skilled immigrant population and a relatively untrained teaching corps (Kleibard, 2004). It was at this time that many public schools began to lay the framework of standardized teaching methods, standardized curriculum, and standardized testing as a method to ascribe sort students' economic potential by their perceived ability (Dennis, 1995; Stoskoft, 2002; Tienken, 2013).

Eugenics and Racism at the Foundation of Educational Institutions

The ideology that fueled the Eugenics movement and contributed to the development of early education reforms exists within a wide arch of powerful social ideology and policy rooted in racist beliefs. Eugenics has been linked as a foundational principle of society that led to prominent theories such as Herbert Spencer's "survival of the fittest," German philosopher Friedrich Hegel's "Universal History," Economist John Maynard Keynes' "authoritarian social investment," G. Stanley Hall's contributions to the modern standardized test of intelligence, and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Edward Thorndike's use of behavioral psychology as the foundation of technocratic and mechanistic teacher practice (Dennis, 1995; Claeys, 2000; Pollock, 2014; Smith, 1993; Thomlinson, 1997; Tienken, 2013). Inherent in these beliefs is the idea that human development is linear, influenced by identifiable inputs, can be measured by a normalized standard, and can be used in the organization of society and the distribution of its valued resources. This justified the measurement of what appeared to be deficient student populations in free competition with the well-resourced and homogenous affluent White society (Stoskoff, 2002). The egalitarian ideology argues that the only thing that should be regulated are the inputs provided to the students, that students merits will be judged fairly by standardized means, and that social resources will be distributed accordingly in the name of fairness (Leyva, 2009; Tienken, 2013). This deterministic and competitive mentality of advancement and progress in schools (present in contemporary approaches to accountability reform) are meant to identify a quality, standardized citizen, for the meritorious distribution of social resources clearly echoes vestiges of the development of compulsory schooling and the Eugenics movement (Selden, 2005). As a result, we need to consider these realities within a review of historical examples vis-a-vis the contemporary education policy that organizes schools for diverse and marginalized students (Stoskoff, 2002).

A Colonial Example of Federal Policy

US federal policy has evolved within broader brushstrokes of colonial discourse (Anderson, 1988; Au, 2011; Dennis, 1995; Leyva, 2009; Spring, 2016; Tienken, 2013). Further, the development of education policy can be viewed as a one descended from the policy that were formed on the ideology that they were for the benevolent enlightenment of people measured to be below the standardized conception of a quality citizen. The effort to change culturally diverse and marginalized people, when viewed within a larger colonial narrative, deserves to be seen as White-dominant society trying to save diverse and marginalized people from racist and classist beliefs that they were feeble-minded, uncultured, barbaric heathens. Federal policies attempted to of institutionalize the Indian for "saving" and reforming their ways to that of an enlightened, civilized, Christian, and economic citizen, as others argue that the entire system of universal education is predicated on almost identical expectations for all American citizens (Adams, 1995; Spring, 1994; Wilson, 1998). Essentially, colonization has argued for the use of education as a means to save diverse and marginalized people from themselves, their own cultures, and their own lived contexts, and into the light of civilization, modernity, cultural evolution, economic development, and intellectual advancement. While education and schooling have the potential to be a positive social, intellectual, and academic experience for diverse and economically marginalized students, "equal" and "quality" become relative terms depending largely on who designs the policy and mechanisms, for whom, with what purpose, aims, practices, and to what effect.

Benevolent Policy of U.S. Politicians

U.S. leaders and politicians developed policies that subjugated Indians and dispossessed them of their land, and in the name of philanthropy (Arrington, 2012). This began when the US

TEACHERS DECISIONS

government passed the *Northwest Ordinance 1787*. This policy advocated for the accumulation of Indian land by official acts of law rather than taking through conflict and warfare, and it was the federal government's first proclamation of which advocated for the development of public schools. Early in the 1800s, Presidents Thomas Jefferson and James Madison supported this by moving Indians off of ancestral homelands in order to ensure their survival (Arrington, 2012).

The veiled intent to “save” the Indian was exemplified by presidential action in Andrew Jackson’s signing of the *Indian Removal Act of 1830* and his failure to uphold and enforce the Supreme Court decision in *Worcester v. Georgia*, 1832 (Eyre & Grimberg, 2009). Jackson signed the *Indian Removal Act of 1830* that benevolently gave Indians land west of the Mississippi River in exchange for Indian homelands found in the Eastern United States in order to ensure their survival (Eyre & Grimberg, 2009). Jackson (1830) stated his hopes for Indians in signing the act:

[This will] enable them to pursue happiness... and perhaps cause them gradually, under the protection of the Government and through the influence of good counsels, to cast off their savage habits and become an interesting, civilized, and Christian community. What good man would prefer a country covered with forests and ranged by a few thousand savages to our extensive Republic, studded with cities, towns, and prosperous farms embellished with all the improvements which art can devise or industry execute, occupied by more than 12,000,000 happy people, and filled with all the blessings of liberty, civilization, and religion?

(Sturgis, 2007, p.103)

These ideas continue to be at the foundations of official federal policy towards the middle of the century, as exemplified by the *Homestead Act of 1862*. This federal legislation

TEACHERS DECISIONS

commandeered large swaths of Indian land that were either previously unclaimed or appropriated by treaty. The creators thought that a nomadic lifestyle was no longer in their best interest (Arrington, 2012). In 1871, Ulysses S. Grant rationalized that economic expansion would give Indian "divine" citizenry in "Christian-like" fashion through assimilation to western standards and values thus avoiding extermination. In his inaugural address, Grant (1869) stated, "The proper treatment of the original occupants of this land—the Indians—one deserving of careful study. I will favor any course toward them which tends to their civilization and ultimate citizenship." He followed up on these words by enacting the *Indians Appropriation Act of 1871*, which appropriated his views. President Grant (1871) states,

Many tribes of Indians have been induced to settle upon reservations, to cultivate the soil, to perform productive labor of various kinds, and to partially accept civilization. They are being cared for in such a way, it is hoped, as to induce those still pursuing their old habits of life to embrace the only opportunity which is left them to avoid extermination. (State of the Union Address)

Grant in this way both continued and solidified the role of the federal government in the life of the Indian, and in such a way that the government would take a paternalistic role to save the Indians from what the government perceived to be problems with their intelligence and their development into nationalized, productive, and free citizens.

Historically speaking, the phrase "Indian Problem" originated in the *Dawes Act of 1887*, in which was federal policy characterized by humanitarian ideas that divesting Indians from their homelands, instituting a policy of individual property rights, and regulating their assimilation through the process of schooling, would be in their best interests (Adams, 1995; Otis, 2014). With its paternalistic orientation, the Dawes Act spurred significant attempts from government

TEACHERS DECISIONS

agencies to engage in the displacement of diverse and marginalized peoples from their lands by creating disconnects between students' knowledge and thinking and their cultural identity. To do this, they chose schools. This is exemplified in Carlisle Indian Institute's Headmaster Richard Henry Pratt claiming that it is better to let the schools "kill the Indian [and] save the man," rather than to eradicate native peoples through war. Education for Native Americans was predicated removing peoples from their home communities through boarding schools and outing programs. In this way, policy decisions have disregarded the relationship between people and their ecological homelands.

The United States federal government developed policy to control the futures of Native Americans who were perceived to be standing in the way of core American values, namely individual liberty and economic progress (Adams, 1995; De Tocqueville, 1835; Otis, 2014). Indian education, derived from federal policy towards Native Americans, has always been entangled with assimilationist objectives by Christian missionaries and colonial capitalists (Reyhner, 1993). Missionaries are accused of advocating to save Indian souls as a means to receive financing that they used to accumulate property and wealth (Reyhner, 1993). These missions and the policy of federal governments are underpinned by an ideology of westward expansion that allowed both of them to operate with relative impunity. Government prescribed actions were explicitly constructed as an opportunity to save the Indian child and support the what they felt was a heathen's advancement to their perceived status of a good and industrious citizen.

Enlightenment Thinking in the Treatment of Native Peoples

The role of government in the procurement of a future is designed through social thinking and situated within the broader development of enlightenment thinking as applied to western

TEACHERS DECISIONS

concepts of civilization. These arose from the U.S. colonial period where political and educational actors appeared to work in a conscientious fashion driven by steadfast beliefs of state-authored liberalism, scientific rationalism, and faith in the divinity of property and progress. Scholars argue that social institutions in the United States were founded on a dominant conception of society in which the central aspiration of the American government in the 1800s was to follow faith in private property, the Christian god, and Western-Anglo cultural progress of the Nation-state and individual citizen facilitating the realization of one's innate potential for economic liberty of its citizens (Banks & Banks, 2004; Turner, 2011). These ideas, predicated on a righteous duality in which western and European constructions of society are civilized and enlightened while the Indians ideas are lesser, primitive, and in need of development, continued to propagate in the Indian-settler context of the early 19th century. They became imbued with governmental policy and eventually the systematic delivery of education.

Expansionist thinking in the American context was greatly influenced by Puritan John Locke. Locke argued for the righteousness of colonial conquest based on Western and Christian ideological superiority (Turner, 2011). His ideology centered on the will of the Christian God in the face of ignorance and heathenism of savage people (Turner, 2011). He argued from the position of scientific rationalism holding the key to unlocking the blank slate of individual's intellectual and moral capacity to achieve the most virtuous of ideas. He believed that education and thinking would get an individual to this point. His *Second Treatise* (1690) had had a significant influence on the creation of the *US Constitution* (Turner, 2011). Within, he exalted the virtues of Christianity, specifically as they related to individual rights to property protected by law. In *The Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina*, Locke (1669) espoused a lawful righteousness of property provided by economic competition and earned by labor. Locke (1669)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

explicitly argues that Indian constructions of life should be erased by the virtue of rational enlightenment ensured by official state policy (Turner, 2011). He argued that this should be done in the best interest of society, and especially the Indian (Turner, 2011).

A Pre-Ordained Prophecy of U.S. Federal Domination

Expansionism in the American context is often characterized as “Manifest Destiny.” (O’Sullivan, 1845) This resulted in the "rightfully justified" stealing of Indian land, the genocide of Indian people, and the development of a systematic assimilation model of education. Expansionism relied on the Euro-Christian enlightenment expression of unalienable rights in the pursuit of individual happiness (Banks & Banks, 2004; Reyhner, 1993). This rhetoric fueled political sentiment in the American colonial landscape and exemplified solidifying American values of individualism, piety, property, capital, and progress in a lawful federal citizen-state. As John O'Sullivan (1839) explained in his article "The Great Nation of Futurity":

The far-reaching, the boundless future will be the era of American greatness. In its magnificent domain of space and time, the nation of many nations is destined to manifest to mankind the excellence of divine principles; to establish on earth the noblest temple ever dedicated to the worship of the Most High — the Sacred and the True. Its floor shall be a hemisphere — its roof the firmament of the star-studded heavens, and its congregation and Union of many Republics, comprising hundreds of happy millions, calling, owing no man master.

(p. 103)

O’Sullivan (1839) wrote of the morality of the American government, “who with “providence” at their back, will stop at nothing less than a perfect and divine future proclaimed

TEACHERS DECISIONS

by their god.” In these statements, Sullivan captured an idea that became the righteous foundation of the U.S. federal government’s efforts to dominate and assimilate Native peoples.

A New (and More Civilized) Reform Mechanism

As government legislation evolved in the late 1800s, it remained underpinned by self-interested prosperity and economic competition and continued to be constructed in such a way that its ideological aims were in the best interest of Native Americans. At this time, reformers introduced a new, benevolent mechanism of policy—the schoolhouse. Together, historical and scholarly perspectives create a preponderance of evidence that Indian boarding schools in the late 19th and early 20th centuries were based on ethnocentric beliefs. For example, publications about the Native American boarding have been titled, *We Have the Right to Exist* (1995), *Kill the Indian, Save the Man* (2004), *Our Spirits Don’t speak English* (2008), *Deculturalization and the Struggle for Equality* (2016), *Battlefield and Classroom* (1964), and *Education for Extinction* (1997). The titles of these text conjure up thoughts of the most serious cultural conflicts predicated on issues of identity, power, and passions, resulting in war, death, genocide, and grief. The literature contains substantial evidence that places the Indian boarding schools as one of the singular and most egregious (and lasting) intentional disasters designed by powerful governmental and philanthropic entities to destroy the identity and culture of original peoples of the North American continent, that in many cases, these indigenous communities are still trying to overcome (Adams, 1997; Fear-Segal, 2006; Gover, 2000; Reyner & Eder, 2006; Richie, 2008; Spring, 2003).

As Christianity became a foothold in Indian communities, the early 19th century ideologies, which rendered Indian ways of being as savage, gave rise to a zealous desire for converted, saved, and educated Indian (Adams, 1995). For example, former Secretary of the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Interior, Henry Teller (1882-1885) argued for policy reform based on conflict being too expensive and a better investment would be to “save” the Indian through schooling (Adams, 1995). Many other political entities supported the paradoxical vision of “saving the Indian”. According to the perspective of the early Christian reform societies committed to solving the “Indian problem,” Indians stood to benefit from the dispossession of their land and the changing of their culture (Adams, 1995). Philanthropic reformers stood behind colonization as “Christian-like” because it would provide Indian salvation by changing their heathen ways through acceptance of Western ideas and culture. Political elites, who at the time were largely comprised of wealthy White men, appeared interested in the assimilation of “other” cultures into the Western Anglo culture, and one that is largely associated with development, progress, accumulation of resources, and work (Adams, 1995).

The literature speaks to educational actors such as reformers, policymakers, administrators and teachers. These individuals act within the context founded on ideological constructions of “life and civilization” and communicate this through their discourse. Together, these individuals and their ideology hold substantial influence over classroom discourse (Apple & Weis, 1983). One such individual was Richard Henry Pratt, a prominent character in creating government policy towards the civilization of Native Americans. Pratt, having served as the headmaster of the largest and most prominent Indian boarding school, Carlisle Institute, contended that the purpose for schooling Indians was to destroy the culture and identity of the “wicked” Indian, in order to save the inherently “good” man and his Christian soul (Pratt, 1964). He states, “the only good Indian is a dead one...in a sense, I agree with the sentiment, but only in this: that in all the Indian there is a race that should be dead. Kill the Indian in him, and save the man” (p.1). While Pratt's rhetoric is explicit, the murderous intentions are masked in ideology

TEACHERS DECISIONS

about progressive schooling. Pratt and many others thought of schools as charitable institutions that provided a means of salvation. He believed schools engaged in the process of "immersing the Indian in our civilization and when we get them under, holding them there until they are thoroughly soaked" (Pratt, 1964, p.335). By all accounts, Pratt's school administration, and the practices he encouraged followed true to his words (Adams, 1995; Churchill, 2004; Fear-Segal, 2006; Haskins & Jacobs, 2002). As he states, "'beginning of the end' of Indian troubles is reached. Education and industrial training for Indian youth, for all Indian youth, will, in a very short period, end the Indian wars..." (Pratt, 1964, p. 252).

The expansion of government policy towards the Indian and immigrant populations is linked to ideological lineages leading to the development of federal education policy in other diverse and marginalized contexts, shown in Pratt's 1964 work, *Battlefield and Classroom: Four Decades with the American Indian, 1867-1904*:

To successfully accomplish the Americanization of the millions of immigrants we invite to membership in our national family, we give them individual welcome to citizenship and through compelling participation in our affairs absorb them. . . It is self-evident that the greatest glory...to be achieved (was) transforming him into a capable, coordinated citizen . . .

(p. 268-269)

Foundations of Contemporary Policy

Neoliberal Ideology

Many scholars argue that both historical and contemporary dominant approaches to education reform is underpinned by Neoliberal ideology. Neoliberal ideology rests on the idea that people are acting in their best interests along the lines of social and capital resources they

TEACHERS DECISIONS

can accrue. Federal education policy uses Neoliberal ideology to defines its goals as increasing students' opportunity to a quality education in order to increase of academic performance on standardized assessments resulting in access to higher education and careers that facilitate competition for scarce economic resources. This is an explicit connection to an ideology that prioritizes a worldview predicated on the rational reduction of human behavior as actions linked to economic competition over limited resources (Apple, 1995, 2000, 2005; Burch, 2004; Lipman 2009; McLaren, 2005).

This history has resulted in a world where neoliberalism has become the preeminent force for shaping education policy in the United States and around the world (Ball, 1993; Apple, 2000; Burch, 2009). Over the last 20 years, during what scholars refer to as the "era of accountability," Neoliberal reform agendas have solidified influence as the singular "organizational and regulative principle" for changing public schools (Apple, 2000; Ball, 1993; Brown, 2003; Burch, 2009; Chibulka & Boyd, 2003; Comber & Nixon, 2009; Hursh, 2005; McBride & Teeple, 2011; McLaren, 2005; Oakes & Rodgers, 2007; Ravitch, 2011, 2013; Torres & Mitchell, 1998; Tyack & Cuban, 2009). Neoliberalism's idea of change is underpinned by an attempt to assert influence of one explicit ideology over social thinking— valuing the free market. This idea in and of itself constitutes a system of rational thought. This rationality is encouraged by the organization of social institutions by leveraging laissez-faire market principles to create the perception of an open, equal, and fair distribution of social goods based on the competition by informed, self-interested and private individuals (Harvey, 2005; McChesney, 2001). The proponents of Neoliberalism utilize very explicit, formal, and hierarchical structures of government, such as policy, to regulate localized educational decision-making, thereby influencing systems and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

institutions of education and the individuals within (Ball, 2000; Burch, 2010; Gordon & Whitty, 1997; Hursh, 2005; Harvey, 2005; Lipman & Hursh, 2007; Rose, 1999).

Neoliberals are influenced by pseudo-Social-Darwinist ideas harboring vestiges of cultural superiority and seeking justification for geographical imperialism (Leyva, 2009). For these groups, education's role in society as an engine of social engineering for progress in that it allows the crème to rise to the top and receive social position and status. Educational critics argue that Neoliberal ideology expects an egalitarian ordering of society based on self-sufficiency through the demonstration of normalized skills that allow individuals to obtain jobs, create capital, and manufacture economic independence while quelling reliance on the government and public for social goods (Tienken, 2013). It is surmised that Neoliberals work from a "growing the pie" ideal of super-capitalism in which the development of this human capital in the individual will contribute to larger economic markets thereby benefiting the entire society or the power structure. We can see the rhetoric of this ideology present in a *Nation at Risk* (1983), as it opens its report with the purpose of education being to, "attain the mature and informed judgment needed to secure gainful employment, and to manage their own lives, thereby serving not only their own interests but also the progress of society itself."

One essential component that exists in the ideological foundations of accountability reform is that it is market-driven. The Neoliberal aims largely revolve around the development of economic capital. Neoliberalism is predicated on beliefs that society is best organized around ideas of laissez-faire meritocracy through which societies valuable goods will be distributed mostly according to individual's achievement and attainment (Matusov, 2011). In general, neoliberals believe that education focused on the market and business principles facilitate

TEACHERS DECISIONS

individual economic self-sufficiency thereby driving economic competition (Apple, 2001, Nichols, 2005).

Theoretical Foundations of Federal Education Policy

Federal education policy utilizes techno-rational theories of uniformity and quality control as way to regulate school curriculum and instruction (Bartolome, 1994, 2004; Kincheloe, 2004). The narrow operating principles based on theoretical constructions of uniformity and equality are front and center. Uniform application for uniform outcomes is the idea that you can simply apply rational, standardized inputs to students creating standardized outputs controlled for quality. These essentializing approaches to pedagogy and teaching neglect the complexities of economic, community, cultural and individual identity and contexts and the diversity of values present in schools serving diverse and marginalized students (Apple & Weis, 1983, Goodlad, 1984). The notions of Whiteness complicate a narrative in which students of color appear to be lower and lesser in comparison to their White and more affluent peers. Policy reforms at state and federal levels have been interested almost exclusively in raising the standards for children coming from homes "other" than these, such minority, immigrant, and disadvantaged (Finn, 1990). And, they looked at it more as a function of individual and community deficiencies, fed by racist and colonial lenses, rather than material and social complexities of their contextual lives (Kantor, 1991).

Uniform approaches. Together, these groups loosely define academic achievement as students' abilities to demonstrate standardized academic skills such as Common Core, learned through standardized curriculum developed by large, for-profit publishing companies, measured by passing standardized tests sold to local school districts at a cost of several billion dollars. Reformers often encourage investments in diverse and marginalized communities under the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

guise that diverse students lack the necessary resources and knowledge to develop their talents and values properly and compete on equal footing with their Whiter and more affluent peers. Federal policy rhetoric is sensitive to continually increased diversity coupled with increased social and economic inequality. The standardized inputs were based on changing the behaviors of institutions and their operations to focus on skills and attitudes that would result in self-sufficient opportunities in the economic market (Kantor, 1991). And it appears that all of these practices bolster the effort to normalize educational outcomes, such as getting certain scores on a standardized test, going to college, or getting a job. According to Kliebard (2004), this diverse group of education reformers has had their eye on the purpose of education, education reform, and control of the school curriculum since the latter part of the 1800s, each having their own role to play in crafting education policy to support their ends. According to critical scholars of education (Apple, 2001; Hursh, 2007; Ravitch, 2011, 2013), a diverse group of neoliberals, conservative philanthropists, and educational managers developed accountability rhetoric. Each of these groups has explicit purposes and are intentional with reform mechanisms and practices leading to intentional outcomes. The theoretical foundations of the process of accountability are simple: (1) Standardize, (2) Measure, (3) Assess, and (4) Evaluate and Judge.

Quality inputs. Quality, as defined by accountability reformers, values common standards of learning vested in canonical annals of knowledge from an "advanced" western culture. Common standards are at the very foundation of the accountability movement and at the very heart of how education is constructed within the ideals of accountability (Shepard et al., 2009). The highly standardized educational mechanisms are an attempt to provide students with an equal and quality education by ensuring that all students graduate high school able to do the same things. Standardization and efforts to control within education and schooling include the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

"research-based" curriculum content tied to standards, the "best practice" standards of instruction, and the "outcomes-based" standards of student performance through testing.

Through a set of standardized curriculum and instruction, accountability reforms are able to hold students and schools accountable for their academic performance on standardized measures.

At the district, school, and classroom level, official knowledge and higher standards are driven by a standardization of what students should be able to know and do. Common Core State Standards (CCSS) were adopted by Hawai'i Department of Education in 2011 as an initial stage of Race to the Top. The "Common Core" curriculum is propagated by conservatives who are worried about the preservation of their own traditions and knowledge that will translate into skills applied in American businesses (Apple, 2001). Many of these ideas about losing American cultural knowledge became mainstream rhetoric as a Nation at Risk that claimed that "minority" students did not know the "basics" or that education had become too much about "meaning emphasis" instead of tried and true facts. According to Neoconservatives, schools are official institutions for transmitting official, Western knowledge, and values, and in American public schools, this primarily constitutes math, English, and research science.

Critical scholars argue that this ethnocentric focus values Western Anglo-European culture over the cultures of students present in the classroom and in American society (Gay, 1995). Moreover, the standards are driving the creation and adoption of "standards" based curriculum. These curricula include McGraw-Hill, America's Choice, Springboard, and Harcourt Mifflin. These curriculums are developed in a variety of larger market contexts, such as Texas, California, New York, and Florida, before being shipped off to smaller ones such as Idaho, West Virginia, and Hawai'i. These curriculums are often scripted and prepackaged with an "education in a box" mentality: if you just give this student this educational experience, then we will give

TEACHERS DECISIONS

them this test that will measure their ability to retain valuable information. As a result, the standardization of inputs, measurements, and assessments is supposed to create an equalization of an opportunity to results. The idea is that if all other things are controlled for an experiment, the outcomes are based on what the individual student brings to the table.

Quality control. Accountability reformers are focused on the implementation and execution of the plan. This includes the measurement of performance, the management of implementation, and the doling out of accountability in order to ensure standardization and quality (Apple, 2001). Quality control managers are interested in assessment and evaluation in particular so that what they feel are reliable and valid decisions that can be made about student performance. According to this ideology, students provided with standard inputs will create outputs that can then be measured against one another. Once the results of what reformers see as equal education and fair assessment are analyzed, government institutions are ensuring schools are held accountable to effectively teaching all students. Curriculums full of the official core of knowledge must be standards-based and aligned to the Common Core in order to be equal and fair to all students. Some schools are purchasing universal materials for all students. Reformers feel these materials will help to alleviate the arguments against standardized testing.

The standardized and universal curriculum is essential in preparing students to take the main measure of success: annual standardized tests. Above all else, accountability reforms lean on standardized tests as legitimate, reliable, and valid measurements of student learning. The reliability and validity of these assessments are facilitated by both the standardization of the assessment tool, but also standardization of the curriculum and instruction. With increased reliability and validity of the testing and measurement, the accountability system gains legitimacy thereby encouraging additional reforms to correct the deficient performance by students and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

schools on these tests. Standardized measurements neglect to take into account the significant cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological elements of a child's life.

This approach to teaching and testing is justified by policymakers as an objective and neutral endeavor and therefore non-political (Apple, 2001). The ideas dictate that schools found to be out of compliance are objectively disciplined and restructured according to government regulations, and objectively collected data. With federal funding tied to performance and accountability measures, schools serving marginalized and disadvantaged students, who tend to score poorly on tests or lack the capacity to demonstrate their ability to deliver quality education, are more likely find themselves in restructuring or facing financial and educational consequences. The "data-driven" mechanisms of accountability reform ensure that populations who are struggling (often non-White, economically marginalized, or both) can be reliably managed by a central government or socially engineered to avoid creating burdensome social and economic problems.

These mechanisms, driven by standardized tests, are essential in the working of the control aspect of NCLB policy. High-stakes or "end-of-course" assessments are usually given once at the end of school year. These individual student scores are aggregated and analyzed as a school and reviewed in comparison to students' peer groups across the national average. The school's overall performance, or their AYP, is associated a formula created by NCLB legislation that placed expectations on students' test scores as a measure of school performance (NCLB, 2002). This measure set the expectation that all students in U.S. public schools would achieve proficiency on tests by 2013-2014 school year.

When a school is deemed to be failing after these reforms, the government imposes corrective stages of school improvement, corrective action, or school restructuring. Each of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

these stages has reforms associated with it. This includes the requirement of teachers and schools to justify their teaching to Common Core State Standards (CCSS), the universal adoption of packaged and scripted curriculums from educational publishing companies such as "America's Choice," "Edison," "Springboard," or McGraw-Hill, and standardized teacher evaluation systems trying to control for quality instruction. Eventually, given unsuccessful implementation of reforms, a school will complete an overhaul of schoolteachers and administration. Because AYP proficiency levels were set in such a way that it was impossible for all schools to pass, restructuring is inevitable. But, do additional reforms and the restricting mean additional disconnect between school and student, and does this mean additional poor performance and success rates?

This question leads to the crux of the matter: is the implementation of accountability reform mechanisms decreasing diverse and marginalized learners' opportunities for success? If we find that teacher discourse is centered on the rhetoric and discourse of accountability reform, we can draw conclusions about where that practice is located in relation to reform rhetoric, ideology, and pedagogy. If we find classroom discourse to be explicitly focused on the rhetoric and rationales of accountability reform, we have a responsibility to question whether or not this is in the best interest of the students.

Continued Skepticism Around the Efficacy of Reforms

Contemporary education policy designed to fix the problem of unequal schooling for diverse and marginalized students evolved from these historical foundations of ideology to address social issues that exist in relationship to diverse and marginalized peoples. There is continued skepticism surrounding the results from the last 30 years of accountability reform (Ravitch, 2011, 2012; Berliner, 2014). Research suggests that beyond having little effect on

TEACHERS DECISIONS

student achievement, standardized pedagogical mechanisms disrupt the way teachers make decisions, leaving them in a position where they are less likely to enact meaningful instructional adaptations to their dynamic contexts (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Giroux, 2006; Goodwin, 2010; Ravitch, 2010, 2014; Sobel, 2004; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vogler & Virtue, 2007).

According to some, “narrowing” of curriculum and instruction is founded on outdated pedagogical assumptions about teaching and learning as well as ineffective instructional practices (Apple, 1996; Giroux, 1992; Tharp, 2006, 2010; Wyatt, 2009). As a result, there are questions about the validity and quality of these pedagogical approaches for students (Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Giroux, 1992; Bartolome, 1994; Tharp et al., 2000; Apple, 2000; Berliner, 2005; Goodwin, 2010).

Alongside other scholars, I argue that standardized pedagogies do not value important sociocultural connections between the curriculum and instruction and students (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Nieto, 2004; Ravitch, 2012; Sobel, 2004). As a result, standardized pedagogies neglect a multiplicity of factors in a student’s life that have the potential to support or hinder their academic achievement (Berliner, 2005; Berliner et al., 2014; Coleman, 1966; Deschenes et al, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Jenks, 1972; Moll et al., 1992; Thomson, 2002). These pedagogical approaches fail to acknowledge substantial research to suggest that contextualized pedagogies founded on valuing student culture, socioeconomic status, and ecological relationships, contribute to learning, academic success, and educational attainment (Au & Jordan, 1981; Deschenes et al., 2001; Gay, 2000, 2001, 2002; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Lee & Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; Moll et al., 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Yamauchi, 1993, 2003).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

For this reason, there is concern about whether the perceived legitimacy of accountability reforms has impeded the enactment of contextualized pedagogies found to support marginalized learners in diverse contexts (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002; Ledward & Takayama, 2009; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Wyatt, 2015). Education literature implies that implementing mechanisms from standardized pedagogy results in “dysfunctional consequences” for instructional practice by neglecting cultural, socioeconomic, and environmental complexities in student lives. (Apple & Weis, 1983; Gruenewald, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 2015; Lipman, 2006; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Wise et al., 1985). Ignoring the lived context of students can result in disconnect and disengagement from school (Demmert, 2005; Gay, 2001; Gruenewald, 2003; Tharp, 2006; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Yamauchi, 1996). Educators who work in marginalized settings argue that contextual complexities in student’s lives should be at the foundation of learning, and incorporating them into curriculum and instruction is “effective” practice (Berliner, 1986; Bridgeland, Dilulio, & Morrison, 2006; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp & Yamauchi, 1994; Yamauchi et al., 2005). These criticisms are warranted, given the standardized approach explicitly seeks to reform instruction for diverse and marginalized students (Berliner, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Ravitch, 2011, 2013, 2012; Tyack & Cuban, 2009).

I argue that aspects of increased federal oversight into educational decisions are predicated on foundations that lead to the implementation of standardized pedagogical approaches to arrive at a place from which to interpret teachers' decisions and perceptions in relation to education reform (Au, 2011; Kantor, 1991; Ravitch, 2012). While some have argued that federal education policy may have a limited role in influencing teachers’ decisions, and even have resulted in positive academic achievements, standardization in curriculum and instruction

TEACHERS DECISIONS

retains problematic connections between the historical foundations and contemporary realities (Baker, 2002; Selden, 1999, 2000; Winfield, 2012). Given these connections, many largely unanswered questions remain and the foundations of standardized pedagogies should continue to be examined against the contexts in which they operate, not in spite of them.

An explicit confrontation, on clear terms, acknowledges the very real effects that policies have on humans as they permeate institutions. When the ideological and theoretical concepts at the foundation of education policy are presented in transparent fashion alongside language from historical policy development and the implementation of universal, compulsory public schooling for all (including Native populations), the idea that schools are simply a mechanism for social equality is problematized. Standardized pedagogies do not value important sociocultural connections between the curriculum and instruction and students (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Nieto, 2004; Ravitch, 2012; Sobel, 2004). As a result, standardized pedagogies neglect a multiplicity of factors in a student's life that have the potential to support or hinder their academic achievement (Berliner, 2005; Berliner et al., 2014; Coleman, 1966; Deschenes et al., 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Jenks, 1972; Moll et al., 1992; Thomson, 2002). These pedagogical approaches fail to acknowledge substantial research to suggest that contextualized pedagogies founded on valuing student culture, socioeconomic status, and ecological relationships, contribute to learning, academic success, and educational attainment (Au & Jordan, 1981; Deschenes et al., 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Gay, 2000, 2001, 2002; Lee & Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; Moll et al., 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Yamauchi, 1993, 2003).

CHAPTER 5: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON CONTEXTUALIZED PEDAGOGY - A STANDING POINT

As federal control of local systems of education continues to be controversial with its levels of its benevolent dictations, and as the potential influence of standardized pedagogical approaches on teachers' decisions become clear, many scholars and practitioners have revitalized their call for using aspects of contextualized pedagogy in diverse contexts with marginalized students (Nichols et al., 2006; Orfield & Lee, 2006; Tharp et al., 2000; Wyatt, 2015).

Contextualized pedagogy strives to “integrate or bridge” the relationship between academic concepts and the student lives (Au & Jordan, 1981; Freire, 2000; Gay, 2000, 2001, 2002; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Gruenewald; 2003; Lee & Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; Moll et al., 1992; Smith, 2002; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wyatt, 2009, 2015; Yamauchi, 1993; 2003). Contextualized pedagogies are valuable as scholars continue to push for a fundamental shift in teaching away from “automatic” and towards “authentic” pedagogical approaches that contribute to a lack contextualized curriculum and instruction in public schools (Gay, 2002; Ledward et al., 2009; Orr, 1994; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Moving away from standardized forms of pedagogy relies on research having shown that contextualized pedagogies result in positive student learning and academic achievement (Aronson & Laughter, 2016; Dalton, 2007; Demmert, 2001; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Tharp, 1997, 2006; Waxman et al., 2003).

In this chapter, I explore three conceptually congruent pedagogies that have originated in response to the dominant approaches to education that ignore or devalue students' lived context. Contextualized pedagogies have been designed in response to dominant approaches to pedagogy that employ a classical treatment model to deal with the perceived deficiencies of diverse and marginalized students. Contextualized pedagogies diverge from the origins, functions, and forms

TEACHERS DECISIONS

of federal education policy and its approach to standardization. In many ways, contextualized pedagogy operates from standing points nearly antithetical to those related to the historical, political, ideological, theoretical, and practical foundations of standardized pedagogy. Since standardized pedagogies emerged from problematic historical places, harboring very narrow ideas about diverse and marginalized students, contextualized pedagogies are a way to make a paradigmatic shift in how we approach public education of diverse and marginalized groups. Rather than looking at education as the depositing of formalized knowledge into the minds of students deemed deficit, contextualized methods of teaching have been developed with the humanizing character of actual events, real contexts, the lived social world, and students' lived context in mind.

Contextualization in the Process of Learning

Contextualization as a process in and of itself is seen as a key component within a social exercise linked to the teaching and learning cycle. Implications from Vygotskyian sociocultural theory suggest that the contextualization of language, situated within knowledge, thought, action, and social context provides conceptual meaning and value. This conceptual, socially bound meaning, is associated with an impetus of conceptualization in making-sense and solidifying ideas at the foundation of learning. In *Thought and Language*, Vygotsky (1986) make the point that when the language lacks a connection to the thought or action, it lacks value and authentic purpose and is possibly construed by the mind as meaningless, therefore learning is best situated to take place within authentic social action. Vygotskyian theory of learning implies that in order for people to learn, and learn effectively, they must feel like they are engaging in something real— a task or action— that has both a sense of immediacy and relevancy in the future (Vygotsky,1978). Sociocultural theory relies on the idea that our past experiences, or at least

TEACHERS DECISIONS

parts of them, will resonate with both our social and psychological beings and support us to construct new meaning to either real and tangible experiences as we continue to learner in new temporalities and contexts (Vygotsky, 1978). Further, research around these concepts and constructs argue that we continue to expand our understanding of where learning takes places, including viewing learning through a lens as a social practice, being acted upon from multiple influences (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In this way, contextualized approaches to curriculum and instruction are clear about making purposeful connections between the curriculum and students' lives and experiences. They are explicit about engaging students in a meaningful way about their lives, and these pedagogical approaches have been proven to have a positive academic influence on student achievement.

In an effort to describe contextualization in practice, the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) researchers described a meaningful set for indicators of contextualization. The teacher:

1. begins activities with what students already know from home, community, and school;
2. designs instructional activities that are meaningful to students in terms of local community norms and knowledge;
3. acquires knowledge of local norms and knowledge by talking to students, parents or family members, community members, and by reading pertinent documents;
4. assists students to connect and apply their learning to home and community;
5. plans jointly with students to design community-based learning activities;
6. provides opportunities for parents or families to participate in classroom instructional activities;

TEACHERS DECISIONS

7. varies activities to include students' preferences, from collective and cooperative to individual and competitive;
8. varies styles of conversation and participation to include students' cultural preferences, such as co-narration, call-and-response, and choral, among others. (CREDE, 2002)

Purpose of Examining Contextualized Pedagogy

By studying the diverse reasons teachers use to justify their practice, I investigate my understanding of how teachers talk about their decisions and how they construct relevant and meaningful connections between their curriculum and instruction and students' lives. Knowledge about these pedagogies can inform how we operate in classrooms as well as how we discuss teachers' decisions in relation to the way their discourse may reveal particular orientations towards the purpose of education. Knowledge of contextualized pedagogy can provide more nuanced understanding various social forces acting on teachers' work in a diverse and marginalized context.

Exploring the purpose of education as constructed by teachers' classroom discourse helps shed light on a long history of schools that present knowledge to students that is detached from purpose, place, and utility within the contexts of these students and their communities (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Dewey, 1914; Goodlad, 1984; Sobel, 2004). An education that is devoid of these connections leaves students struggling to construct positive meaning and purpose for their academic experiences. This may leave them in a state of ambivalence about the purpose and utility of school itself (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Peshkin, 1997). This is especially the case when we are concerned with students from diverse cultural, socioeconomic, and environmental settings. Students in these communities find school confusing and uncomfortable due to the difference in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

culture and language at the heart of school structure and practices (Delpit, 2006, 2012; Shields, 1997, 2000; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991).

Scholars have argued that curriculum and instruction are often developed out of context or culture of the learner (Kaomea, 2000; Shields, 1997, 2000; Smith, 2002; Tharp & Yamauchi, 1994). The disconnected curriculum does not support an appropriate knowledge for the students of a particular place and space, and often invalidates a student's own knowledge, experiences and culture. As bell hooks (2003) advises in *Teaching Community*, "One of the dangers we face in our educational systems is the loss of feeling of community, not just the loss of closeness among those with whom we work and with our students, but also the loss of feeling of connection and closeness with the world beyond" (p. xv). When schools present knowledge that lacks consideration for lived and community context, they fail to create a space that connects, values and validates students' lived experiences. In doing so, we inherently disconnect students from that knowledge itself, and thus make it more difficult to build essential relationships between students, teachers, learning experiences, and the world around them.

These issues highlight a problem with educational reform in which education policy that drives educational outcomes in the marginalized context tends to be constructed by powerful social, cultural, and political groups outside of the context of the learner, their lives, and their community (Freire & Shor, 1987; Gay, 1995). As a result, policy reforms that influence classroom discourse and teacher practice may be imposed on marginalized groups, rather than developed with them. If this is, or continues to be, the rule rather than the exception, schools and educators become complicit in the reproduction of inequality. Because curriculum and instruction can create a sense of value for cultures and ideas, imposing practices that support success as valued by the hegemony instead of the context of the community will continue to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

systemically deny students cultural connections to purpose of education or knowledge itself. For these reasons, I hope this work will contribute to a larger dialogue focused on valuing democratic, contextually relevant educational practices that prioritize providing students with socially just educational opportunities leading to their ability to navigate their own world in an authentic and conscious fashion (Freire, 2000; Gay, 1995; Hickling-Hudson, Matthews, & Woods, 2004; Ivison et al., 2000; Kana'iaupuni & Kawai'ae'a, 2008; Kaomea, 2003; Macedo, 1999; Merriam, 1928; Ogbu, 1990; Smith, 1999).

Foundations of Contextualized Pedagogies

The following is a review of ideological, theoretical, and practical foundations of three distinct, yet related pedagogical approaches. Contextualized pedagogies rely on sociocultural perspectives, research, and practices that acknowledge (and use) students' lives at the foundation of learning. Within these pedagogies, learning is a social and contextual process by which individuals meaningfully interact with others within their situated lived experiences. This work emerges from sociocultural theories valuing the development of curriculum and instruction in relationship to the diverse and unique lives that students live.

In this chapter, I discuss literature from contextualized approaches to pedagogy that use cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological aspects of students lived contexts to support student educational experiences. In particular, these are culture-based, critical, and place-based pedagogies. Each of the three pedagogies discuss and respects the role of culture, socioeconomics, and environment in the educational and social life of students and communities, and all have been found to be supportive of student learning. Yet, they all do so in a slightly different fashion and draw from different literature foundations. What is interesting is the way in which they diverge on theory but converge on a salient point: curriculum and instruction related

TEACHERS DECISIONS

to students' lived context benefits learning. Therefore, I describe them together as contextualized pedagogies. Furthermore, I question the challenges made to the implementation of contextualized pedagogies, since implementing them has positive effects on student learning in diverse and marginalized contexts.

Origins of Contextualized Pedagogies

Literature on relevant pedagogy defines its purpose along historical, critical, and practical matters. Over 100 years of academic research, social critique, democratic struggle, and local effort to transform education, similarities have emerged about the value of student's cultural, sociopolitical, and environmental contexts in learning. Historically, public schools have been founded on the interests of a dominant society. Schools as powerful institutions have been intent on the assimilation of students from diverse sociocultural backgrounds into a normalized western cultural values and knowledge (Adams, 1995; Demmert & Towner, 2003; Goodlad, 1984; Ladson-Billings, 2015; Kincheloe, 2008; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Spring, 2003, 2008; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). Traditionally speaking, standardized educational mechanisms perceive students from diverse sociocultural backgrounds as having deficits that require remediation (Demmert, 2001, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Rogoff & Morelli, 1989; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006). Standardized pedagogical approaches are insufficient and disconnected from education that supports marginalized learners in diverse contexts (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Gruenewald, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Kincheloe, 2008; Smith, 2003; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp & Yamauchi, 1994; Tharp, 2006; Waxman & Huang, 1996). Contextualized pedagogy transforms education, encourages social justice, and humanizes knowledge production by including cultural, socio-political, and environmental issues in teaching and learning (Apple, 1996; Demmert &

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Towner, 2003; Gruenewald, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Kincheloe, 2008; Smith, 2003; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). Contextualized pedagogy and practice results in student engagement, learning, and academic achievement (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Demmert, 2001, Demmert & Towner, 2003; Gay, 2002; Gruenewald, 2003; Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lipka, 2002; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006). Furthermore, contextualized pedagogies view teachers as valuable and critical actors in transforming education. (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Gay, 2013; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Kincheloe, 2008; Padron, 1992; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Waxman & Huang, 1996).

Foundational Constructs: Culture-Based Pedagogy

Culture-based pedagogy, often referred to as “culturally compatible,” “culturally-responsive,” “culturally- congruent,” and “culturally-relevant” teaching, acknowledges the role of resources, politics, and place, but leans heavily on the role of culture in learning (Gay, 1995, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995, 2009; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000; Wyatt, 2015; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995; Yamauchi et al., 2005, 2006). Culture-based pedagogy recognizes anthropological foundations of students lived contexts, including: experiences, values, norms, language, actions, knowledge, and community, as foundations to learning and making sense of the world (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Moll et al., 1992; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000, Vygotsky, 1986, 2004; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). Given the history of schooling in diverse contexts with marginalized students, culture-based pedagogy argues that student’s cultural background should inform how curriculum and instruction is developed and implemented (Gay, 2002; Moll & Diaz, 1987; Tharp et al., 2000; Tharp, 2006; Yamauchi, 1993).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Along these lines, scholars are critical as to whether or not the foundations of schools are congruent with students' lives (Demmert & Towner, 2003; Kana'iaupuni et al., 2010; Ledward & Takayama, 2008; Moll et al., 1992; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000, Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). As Gay (2001) notes, teaching culturally diverse and historically marginalized students, should be intent on,

...using the cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students as conduits for teaching them more effectively. It is based on the assumption that when academic knowledge and skills are situated within the lived experiences and frames of reference of students, they are more personally meaningful, have higher interest appeal, and are learned more easily and thoroughly.

(p. 106)

In doing so, culture-based pedagogy attempts to facilitate connections between school and students' home culture to increase engagement and student achievement (Gonzalez et al., 2006; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Tharp et al., 2000).

Foundational constructs: Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy acknowledges contextualization as purposeful in learning to build meaningful relationships between the students' lived context and schools as a mechanism of social justice. Sometimes referred to as a "critical theory," "emancipatory," "transformative," "liberation," "social justice," or "radical" pedagogy, Critical pedagogy provides a different, slightly more socio-political lens. Critical pedagogy explicitly interrogates schools as institutions influenced by powerful political interests, socioeconomic structures, and control mechanisms (Giroux, 1984, 1992; Giroux & Giroux, 2006; Lather, 1998; McLaren, 2002; McLaren & Kincheloe, 2007). As a result of an unequal distribution power in society and schools, dominant

TEACHERS DECISIONS

and discursive ideologies inform educational mechanisms in ways that marginalize social and cultural groups lacking in economic and political power. According to scholars of Critical pedagogy, public education serves a hegemonic function for dominant society by “steering” why, what, and how marginalized students should learn (Apple, 2000; Ball, 1995; Burch, 2010; Giroux, 2015). Scholars argue that schools diminish and dehumanize students and communities thereby denying them control over their lives and public institutions (Bartolome, 1994; Freire, 2000; Kaomea, 2003). The literature of Critical pedagogy speaks to the role of culture and place in this struggle, but often so in dialectical terms of powerful western ideology, resources and capital, and the marginalized other.

Beyond emphasizing criticisms of power and the resultant political and economic inequalities, Critical pedagogy brings attention to the agency of the individual as the impetus for developing a critical awareness to change marginalized contexts (Freire, 2000; Giroux, 1992; McLaren, 2003; Shor & Freire, 1987). As a result, Critical pedagogy encourages contextualization as a way to make explicit powerful influences on teachers and students in schools. In this way, learning becomes a purposeful and critical examination of students social, political, cultural, and economic “situationality,” and the subsequent knowledge, a tool through which to challenge injustice (Freire, 2000, 1993; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Macedo & Giroux, 1997).

Foundational Constructs: Place-Based Pedagogy

Place-based pedagogy also advocates for education founded in the lived context of students. Place-based pedagogy, sometimes referred to as “environmental education,” “outdoor education,” “ecological literacy,” or “ecological education,” is similar to Culture-based pedagogy and Critical pedagogy in that literature speaks to need of addressing a system of public

TEACHERS DECISIONS

education which neglects important student relationships to their ecological experience (Dewey, 2008; Goodlad, 1984, 2004; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Smith, 2007). Additionally, Place-based pedagogy advocates for an education that challenges the Eurocentric and western episteme and the technical or standardized processes for the construction of knowledge (Bowers, 2001; Gruenewald, 2003; Smith 2007). The literature proposes that the purpose of Place-based pedagogy is to change the fundamental techno-rational approach of managing environmental resources for capital development because it detaches knowledge and learning from the experience and contexts in which it is meaningful (Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). More pointedly, the foundational purpose of Place-based pedagogy is to create learning driven by authentic experiences and relationships in the ecological world that surrounds them (Orr, 1994; Bowers, 2001). Furthermore, the deeper meaning for contextualizing knowledge in this way is an opportunity to develop knowledge of ecology for mutual benefit and empathetic attitudes toward cultural and environmental sustainability (Smith, 2002; Sobel, 1996, 2004; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). As perspectives on knowledge and learning have become more nuanced and sophisticated, scholars of Place-based pedagogy argue that place is an essential component to curriculum and instruction that influences engagement, learning, academic achievement, and contributes to authentic knowledge and meaning making (Gruenewald, 2003, 2014; Sobel, 1996; Smith, 2007; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000).

Theoretical Foundations of Contextualized Pedagogies

The theoretical foundations present in the literature on contextualized pedagogy are dense, wide, and in some cases hidden or obtuse. Generally speaking, the literature tells of myriad orientations. There are some common references to scholars and concepts. For example, literature associated with each of the pedagogies make reference to constructivism, or building

TEACHERS DECISIONS

knowledge of the world through individual perceptions of it, based on the foundations of social life present in their lives and through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. Literature generally speaks to the subjective and multidimensional nature of knowledge and knowledge construction in the educational process. Within each of the three pedagogical approaches, we see literature that makes common reference to John Dewey and students lived experience, Karl Marx and the roles of economics in society and education, Lev Vygotsky and the foundation of sociocultural context in learning, Michel Foucault and the way in which power complicates relationships within institutions, and Paolo Freire and the need to utilize education as an opportunity to challenge power through developing critical consciousness in marginalized groups and individuals. To differing degrees, theory in each of the pedagogies acknowledges the role of culture, social politics, and the environment in learning. With that said, each of the individual literatures reveals unique theoretical lineages as well.

Theoretical Constructs of Culture-Based Pedagogy

While most of the literature in Culture-based pedagogy talks about the significance of the process of contextualization in teaching and learning, the term *contextualization* as an explicit concept in instructional practice, only appears in literature founded on sociocultural theory. Sociocultural theory, also known as social historical development theory, claims connection to the work of Lev Vygotsky. The theory organizes student's learning and cognition as taking place in relationship to sociocultural contexts. (Bruner, 1999; Bruner & Leach, 1999; Moll et al., 1992; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). As Tharp & Gallimore (1988) note, "Vygotsky argued that a child's development cannot be understood by the study of an individual; one must also examine the external social world in which that individual's life has developed" (p. 19).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

According to these theories, learning is neither purely a response to the external forces, nor is it expressly acquired in hierarchical stages of development, rather is a continuum of learning that relies on learners making sense of the world through authentic experiences in social contexts with more knowledgeable members of their community (Vygotsky, 1978). The theory supposes that a sociocultural context contains models, cues, and actions, and perhaps more importantly, authentic meanings behind real historical and cultural problems, that are communicated by language and action. These elements combine to support knowledge acquisition by engaging the learner in a co-construction of the meaning behind the task as it relates to life of the learner (Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp et al., 2000, Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Yamauchi, 1993; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995).

Literature based on sociocultural theory argues that meaning-making around social practices drives learning, particularly in non-institutional, non-formal educational settings (Cummins, 2007; Tharp & Gallimore; 1988). According to Vygotsky (2004), the act of meaning-making is what allows learners to take away ideas and thoughts from a learning experience, and subsequently arrive at what he called the “pinnacle of brain capacity,” which is the power to retain knowledge allowing for imagining the application of learned thoughts and action in any numbers of related or subsequent contexts.

Theoretical Constructs of Critical Pedagogy

Over a similar time period to the development of sociocultural theory, critical pedagogues staked a claim as a way to make sense of social and educational phenomena (Wink, 2005). In particular, literature on Critical pedagogy makes direct reference to models and systems founded on Western colonization, global imperialism, international war, and the spread of capitalism rooted in Eurocentric knowledge, values, and ideology (McLaren, 2003). Theory

TEACHERS DECISIONS

from critical traditions emerges from social and philosophical works of Marx, Hegel, and Weber, transforms through Frankfurt scholars of Horkheimer, Adorno, Habermas, and Marcuse, but also utilizes outsiders such as Gramsci and Bakhtin. Accordingly, Critical pedagogy utilizes theoretical references to Marxist and neo-Marxist thinking, and is committed to criticism of state ideological domination and the social engineering of working class people (Brueing, 2011; Popkewitz, 1999; McLaren, 2003). Critical pedagogy does make references to culture, but less so in the anthropological sense prevalent in Culture-based pedagogy. Theoretically speaking, Critical pedagogy posits culture in terms of dialectical issues related to domination and oppression and defined in terms of race, class, gender, and other hierarchical divisions in society (Freire & Macedo, 2005). Theoretical models in Critical pedagogy attempt to demonstrate how ideology, discourse, and power operate in social institutions on and around individuals bound by relationships in the political economy (Aronowitz & Giroux, 2003; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002; Shor & Freire, 1987).

In its post-structural form, Critical pedagogy focuses on transformation of, or liberation from, a singular, governed industrial and global hegemonic state operating with on a normative “technocratic rationality” (Giroux, 1997, 2006; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002). Critical pedagogy is similar to Culture-based pedagogy and Place-based pedagogy, in that it strives to offer alternate constructions of truth from “other” sets of knowledge and imaginations of social reality, purpose, and order (Adams et al., 2007). In their own way, critical scholars challenge objective, legitimate, positivist, dehumanized, and traditional notions of knowledge, truth, power, and control. Theorists question the role of domi-righteous discursive practices (social forces that try to impose a singular, correct view of the world on peoples’ thoughts, language and actions) vis-à-vis liberation of the mind from confronting powerful constructions of truth through discourse,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

dialogue, and democracy. In this way, literature on Critical pedagogy illuminates issues of agency and domination by confronting social structures, doxa (social ideas), and external and internalized oppression (Bourdieu, 1992). The ultimate challenge in reviewing literature from critical pedagogy is the theoretical quilt interwoven among the “post-discourses” of cultural studies, postmodernism, poststructuralism, feminism, and postcolonial thinking, each questioning its own historical foundations, and each giving way to a range of more nuanced discourses that claim, among many others, Bourdieu, Derrida, Foucault, Lyotard, Deleuze, Butler, Althusser, Hall, Freire, Fanon, and Said, as theoretical provocateurs (Adams et al., 2007; Giroux, 1997, 2006; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002).

Theoretical Constructs of Place-Based Pedagogy

In this review, the challenge associated with the lack of singularity and stability at the foundation of Critical pedagogy is rivaled only by the lack of explicitness in Place-based pedagogy (Gruenewald, 2003). Place-based pedagogy literature on contextualization does not appear to overtly link to any specific discipline in the social sciences. Though it does appear to be conscientious towards aspects of culture and critical theory, including Heidegger and Foucault (Edelglass, 2009; Haymes, 1995). The literature acknowledges that Place-based pedagogy is an orientation relying heavily on practical and purposeful considerations including, contextual and cultural studies, inquiry in nature, community based problems, environmental issues, and community actors (Smith, 2002; Woodhouse & Knapp, 2000). As Gruenewald (2003) argues:

...place-based education lacks a specific theoretical tradition, though this is partly a matter of naming. Its practices and purposes can be connected to experiential learning, contextual learning, problem-based learning, constructivism, outdoor education, indigenous education, environmental and ecological education, bioregional education,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

democratic education, multicultural education, community-based education, critical pedagogy itself, as well as other approaches that are concerned with context and the value of learning from and nurturing specific places, communities, or regions. (p.3)

That said, Gruenewald (2003) speaks plainly about Freirean pedagogy, and grounds its connections to marginalized cultural socioeconomic groups in both rural and urban contexts. Similarly, he brings into play the connections between Place-based pedagogy and sites of the urban struggle of African Americans for social and economic justice (Haymes, 1995; Gruenewald, 2003). These theoretical adoptions and adaptations include those from culture-based pedagogy that invoke calls from “critical multiculturalists” like bell hooks and the voice of indigenous scholars (Gruenewald, 2003). More recently, Gruenewald & Smith (2007) draw on post-colonial Freirean theory as a foundation for advocating for the role of place and environmental justice in curriculum development. This lack of explicitness speaks to the root of Place-based pedagogy in that it doesn’t claim much time in or lineage from the halls of the academy.

More recently, scholars have been critical of society and the lack of concern for ways of knowing and perceiving the world derived from an authentic role for the environment in society (Bowers, 2001; Gruenewald, 2003). Bowers (2001) critiqued early place based practice from a sociocultural perspective. He argued that language and actions associated with early conceptual construction on the environment did so in primarily scientific and western terms, as opposed to contextually specific or everyday language of the people. In this way, the language contained dominant views on science and ecology were largely “rooted” in an over reliance on the enlightenment episteme (Bowers, 2001). In a general frame of Enlightenment thinking, the natural world was reduced to a backwards place, and the rationalist objectivity demands we view

TEACHERS DECISIONS

the environment as wholly material and classifiable, and therefore detached from our lives (Bowers, 2001). The theoretical implications of Bowers (2001) work included a circuitous theory in which context becomes the foundation of thinking and learning and its value is socially constructed through the process of making meaning about the connections between the cultural and ecological situatedness of wisdom, knowledge, and learning. Basically, Bowers (2001) contributed a way of looking at the world that is constructed on human relationships to nature and the explicit value of the relationship to our everyday lives.

Contextualized Pedagogy in Practice

In practical terms, a challenge exists in identifying each of these pedagogies— Culture-based pedagogy, Critical pedagogy, Place-based pedagogy — as distinct and categorical. As Wyatt (2015) notes, “the importance of contextualization permeates the literature, yet surprisingly little is known about the actual process and steps involved in classroom enactment” (p. 2). As teachers know, the classroom is a nuanced place where in singular moments multiple pedagogies may exist simultaneously, or perhaps not at all. As a result, these three pedagogies become somewhat intertwined. Therefore, it is useful to look at an example of successful practice and list characteristics that define practical aspects of contextualized pedagogy (Wyatt, 2015). Yamauchi (2003), after working across marginalized and indigenous contexts, found contextualization to be the “most prominent” classroom practice that supports students’ learning.

Contextualization has the ability to address issues of culture, socio-politics, and place in unique cultural and geographical contexts, acknowledging the cultural identity and the socioeconomic realities of the learners measured to be underperforming (Yamauchi, 2003). In her research, Yamauchi (2003) presented practical examples of contextualization, with students working with their community and utilizing culture to transform society and address political and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

environmental issues. In this case, contextualized instruction had students from public school learning in community-based contexts and with the guidance of more knowledgeable and related social members.

While fantastic in its singularity, this example is not necessarily unique if we consider the “situatedness” of contextualized teaching across the whole of literature. In Critical pedagogy, we see students from indigenous and marginalized communities organizing around culture and place to overcome socio political issues (Freire, 2000). In Place-based pedagogy literature, we see student’s unique urban contexts learning about the role of place in order to establish a strong cultural value system which allows students to transform oppressive social structures (Haymes, 1995). Teaching in schools is where the proverbial pedagogical rubber meets the road. In classrooms, and through teachers’ practice of contextualization, pedagogy meets context and real questions of culture, political economy, and place becomes the truly powerful component in learning. Contextualization practices facilitate teacher’s curricular and instructional planning decisions, as well as their perceptions of relevance.

The Practice of Culture-Based Pedagogy

Literature speaking to the practical concerns of Culture-based pedagogy suggests that teachers design curriculum and instruction with knowledge of how students act, talk, and communicate within their home environments (Ladson-Billings, 2009; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). A culturally congruent teacher utilizes contextualization to plan curriculum and instruction with consideration for student’s language, norms, values, strengths, interests, and ways of being and seeing in mind. This includes student social and cultural ways for expression and learning. Studies have concluded that teachers should know various students’ cultural traditions, values, communication, relationship, and learning styles, for the reason that it

TEACHERS DECISIONS

is a humanizing pedagogical approach that supports students learning (Gay, 2000; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). Contextualized teaching acknowledges research studies that have demonstrated if curricular and instructional planning takes into account students traditional styles of communication; students are more aptly able to participate, and as a result, learn. (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Tharp et al., 2000; Yamauchi & Tharp, 1995). Literature on Culture-based pedagogy encourages teachers to use cultural symbols and contexts as a way to make meaningful connections between prior knowledge and school learning (Demmert, 2001; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000).

The Practice of Critical Pedagogy

Similarly, Critical pedagogy attempts to define itself in practical terms, but is also wary of being explicit with its practices, rather suggesting a more general approach in an effort to avoid contributing to standardized practice. McLaren (2003) tries to put knowledge and teaching two categories: micro-objectives and macro-objectives. In this case, micro-objectives of teaching are the transmission of knowledge, content and skills, while the macro-objectives resonate more with the connections of the knowledge to the larger socio-political realities. McLaren (2003) goes further to delineate the different kinds of knowledge teaching transmits in terms of technical, practical, or emancipatory. “Technical knowledge,” which can be quantified and measured; “practical knowledge,” which is situated in the daily actions of students; and “emancipatory knowledge,” which serves the macro function in tying the technical and practical knowledge to larger social constructs in order to support student’s critical understanding of the issues they face.

The Practice of Place-Based Pedagogy

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Finally, Woodhouse and Knapp (2000) reviewed literature on Place-based pedagogy to reveal the following characteristics:

- The content is specific to the geography, ecology, sociology, politics, and other dynamics of that place;
- It is inherently multidisciplinary;
- It is inherently experiential;
- All curricula and programs are designed for broader objectives;
- It connects place with students' sense of self and their place in community.

According to the literature, this could mean planting a garden and then doing research on it as a foundation for math curriculum (Sleeter & Cornbleth, 2011). This could be visiting historic sites in city as the foundation of a narrative inquiry in social studies. It could also be designing a curriculum around hunting or aquaculture (Bartholomeus, 2006; Gay, 2010). In the process, students are actively recording and analyzing their experience and the knowledge that they are creating.

Effects of Contextualization on Student Learning

The discussion about research that reveals the positive effects of contextualization on learning is founded on one seemingly simple, often overlooked, yet significant point: the practice of contextualization is context dependent (Tharp, 2006, 2010; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000). This seminal point about the effects of contextualization resulted from research derived in the Hawai'i context. Beginning in the 1970s, researchers and educators with the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP), utilized knowledge of students' cultural context, and developed an effective reading and literacy program for Native Hawaiian students (Jordan, 1995; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wyatt, 2009). KEEP researchers argued that the deep

TEACHERS DECISIONS

situatedness of sociocultural context facilitated language learning goals, patterns of interaction, communication norms, and curricular content (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). These elements came together in such a way that influenced students' levels of engagement in learning (Au, 1980; Wyatt, 2009).

Given the effects of contextualized instruction, researchers exported the programmatic interpretations to another indigenous community. Researchers wanted to find out whether the program outcomes were the results of good teaching, or whether contextualization in instruction was as important as they believed. As they did so, they found that the practices developed in the KEEP program did not provide the same effects on engagement or achievement in the new context (Jordan, 1995; Tharp, 2010; Tharp & Dalton, 2007; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Vogt et al., 1987; Wyatt, 2009; Yamauchi, 1993). Rather, the literature suggests that different norms and values governed the new context, and desired positive learning effects were dependent on relevant connections made by and among researchers, cultural anthropologists, and community experts (Tharp, 2010; Yamauchi, 1993). In extrapolating the findings to external contexts, CREDE recognized that contextualization is a part of an effective practice but only in so much that relevant connections between learning and the context in which it is practiced are established (CREDE, 2002; 2009).

Generally speaking, contextualized instruction has been found to be supportive of student engagement, motivation, learning, and academic achievement across contexts (Au, 1980; Dewitt & Storksdiel, 2008; Emekauwa, 2004; Haymes, 1995; Gruenewald, 2003; Kuh, 2008; Luning, 2013; Smith, 2002; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Tharp et al., 2000; Wyatt, 2015; Yamauchi et al., 2000; Yamauchi, 2003). Additionally, research revealed that relevant instruction is associated with positive measures of student achievement (Au & Kawakami, 1994; Demmert & Towner,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

2003; Reyner et al., 2011; Hanley & Noblit, 2009; Kana'iaupuni et al., 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Tharp & Gallimore, 1991; Tharp et al., 2000). Relevant instruction is argued to have an effect on student's identity and supports student resilience, self-efficacy, belonging, and educational goal setting (Arellano & Padilla, 1996; Smith et al., 1999; Umana-Taylor, 2004). Others have found contextualized approaches to learning increased interdisciplinary and inter community collaboration which resulted in student learning that was applicable to community cultural, social, and environmental issues (Yamauchi, 2003).

Barriers to Implementation

Considering the foundations of these pedagogies brings up an essential question: if educational research across the board finds that contextualized pedagogy has meaningful purpose, sensible rationales, widely held theoretical frameworks, and effective results in positive educational effects for diverse and marginalized students and their communities, why is it that these pedagogies are not being implemented? Literature reveals that contextualized pedagogies are not implemented for a variety of reasons. These reasons behind the challenge include, but are not limited to:

- the relationship between the teacher, the school, and the community, as it contributes to the teachers' knowledge about students' lives,
- the narrowing power of pedagogical approaches and foundational ideas linked to federal education policy and accountability reforms, and
- a disconnect between theory and practice in teacher preparation.

Research suggests that contextualized curriculum requires strong knowledge of context, time, and community buy-in (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Delpit, 2012; Sleeter, 2008; Wyatt; 2015) In other words, when teachers do not share the same cultural, social and geographic

TEACHERS DECISIONS

backgrounds with their students, it can be difficult for them to develop relevant curriculum and instruction. Along those lines, when teachers lack understanding of the cultural and linguistic context of the students in the context in which they work, this can result in less than supportive treatment (Gay, 2000; Heath, 1983; White-Clark, 2005). But, these partnerships do not rest squarely on teachers' shoulders, as some studies suggest that teachers and partners, including parents and families, lack the time, trust, and cultural alignments to schools that are required to develop meaningful and relevant curriculum (Yamauchi, 1993; Yamauchi et al., 1996; Yamauchi, 2003).

To this point, research has shown that teachers who know about the communities and cultures of their students are better able to make the relevant connections to make school meaningful and motivating to students (Gay, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Kaiwi, 2006; Kaomea, 2003; Kawakami, 2004; Moll et al., 1992; Tharp et al., 2000). Thus, if marginalized peoples, and their values, norms, and knowledge are not afforded a place of value in the curriculum, it results in teachers without appropriate knowledge, materials, or skill sets to utilize contextualization (Kaomea, 2000; Wyatt, 2009; Yamauchi, 2003). Embeddedness in context, alignment of curriculum to local knowledges, and planning time all influence a teacher's ability to implement contextualized instruction (Penuel et al., 2007). With time and knowledge, teachers gain greater confidence and a sense of self-efficacy towards the value of contextual aspects of their students' lives in the learning process, and this that forefronts a positive attitude for the value of professional learning (Osborne et al., 2003; Penuel et al., 2007).

Another significant impediment to the implementation of contextualized pedagogy is the hierarchical nature of institutional and administrative power situated in historical traditions, cultural hegemony, policy, and marginalization, and linked explicitly to district, state, and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

federal mandates. In this way, impediments come from a political and structural place. Wyatt (2009) concludes this point in the study of implementing contextualized pedagogy into schools serving native students across the country of Greenland. Wyatt found that reform leaders, many of whom were either from outside the context, coming from Denmark (the historical colonial power in the context of Greenland), or from dominant cultural sentiments, did not see value in contextualized and unique cultural approaches to pedagogy, even though they found value in pedagogies that engaged with socioeconomic realities, or other more applicable environmental connections, outside the value of culture. Wyatt (2009) argued that implementation of contextualized pedagogy was complicated by the larger historical, structural, contextual factors derived from the colonial relationship between Greenland and outside dominant powers: when Greenland attempted to implement contextualized pedagogy, powerful stakeholders failed to see the value in an outdated construction of local culture, and were skeptical of its role and value in promoting student learning of common outcomes.

The role of policy and policymakers acting as barriers to contextualization of learning is related to federal accountability reforms that deprofessionalized teaching and encourage a highly technical scripted curriculum that conscripts and controls teachers' choices (Ball, 1995, 2003; Hargraves, 1994; Kincheloe & Pinar, 1991; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). From another perspective, teachers, regardless of their training, tended to teach using the practices with which they were taught, and that implementation of alternative pedagogy would simply amount to a "departure from tradition" (Apple, 1979; Windschitl, 2002; Wyatt, 2009).

The disconnect between theory and practice results in a lack of contextualized pedagogies being utilized by teachers (Hargraves, 1984; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Gay, 2013; Sleeter, 2008). Further, in some cases, contextualized pedagogy lacks clear examples of practices that are

TEACHERS DECISIONS

useful and authentic for teachers. (Edwards & Klees, 2012; Ellsworth, 1989). This has the potential to influence our schools of education and teacher preparation pipelines, as they do not comprehensively address the issues in diverse contexts with marginalized learners. Rather, contextualized pedagogies are often seen as an “add-on” skill set for those who are interested or to meet the requirement for accreditation (Sleeter, 2008; Wyatt, 2015). The disconnect can also be bidirectional, in that teachers have a limited understanding of the “critical” nature and “empowering” possibilities of their work (Sarroub & Quadros, 2014). This might be because contextualized pedagogy, while steeped in purposeful rhetoric, lacks evidence or examples of practice to elicit important professional consideration from teachers (Ellsworth, 1989; Gay, 1995; Wyatt, 2015).

This resonates with researchers who claim that teachers’ realities consist of decisions that are made in relationship to practical considerations (Hargraves, 1984). Teachers are often placed in a position of lesser-power than academics and administrators Teachers must then use practical considerations as a means of empowerment, as their more their practical concerns and considerations are ignored by these by academics and administrator (Hargraves, 1984). As Hargraves (1984) says:

...the relatively recent emergence of school centered innovation provides a marvelous opportunity for teachers thinking to be concerned with great effectiveness to the broadest questions of educational purpose and direction; but if this opportunity is not to be lost, such thinking must itself be based upon a broad and conception of teacher experience beyond the immediate confines of the classroom.

(p. 253)

Conclusion

Culture-based, Critical, and Place-based pedagogies, while emergent, are mostly well-defined, comprehensive approaches to teaching and learning. Each contains a history of scholarship with theoretical nuances, criticisms, interpretations, and a multidimensionality that results from lengthy attention. This literature review compares and contrasts education scholarship on one aspect of these pedagogical approaches: contextualization in the process of learning. It is inclusive across and restrictive within the literature with regards to the reason, opportunity, and value in making curriculum and instruction relevant to students' lives.

Pedagogical overlap around contextualized pedagogies makes this categorical examination challenging. The literature suggests convergence in some areas and divergence among others. Delineations are somewhat arbitrary by scholar and theory, and do not necessarily hold hard and fast lines. This is particularly the case when it comes to considering practical contexts as well as general effects. While some of these pedagogical approaches have more refined and developed instructional characteristics than others, classroom practice often resists a neat, singular frame.

But, across the literature for contextualized pedagogy, research contributes one practical, weighted point: a meaningful, positive connection exists between contextualization and student learning. The positive effects of contextualized pedagogies on students' learning experiences returns us to the question about why these pedagogies are not being implemented in diverse contexts with marginalized learners. This is important because marginalized students have arguably been the least well served by the recent education reforms operating with standardized approaches (Bartolome, 1994; Berliner, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2015; Ladson-Billings, 1995).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The review of the literature on contextualized pedagogies suggests that systems of education have the opportunity to increase academic achievement of marginalized students in diverse contexts. These pedagogies hope to address historical oppression and inequality in education and society, in order to make social equity possible. This study serves to explore spaces of cultural support, socio-political resistance, and ecological nonconformity in the face of unjustified mechanisms of standardized pedagogy. These spaces harbor alternate ideologies and reasons for acting and being that stretch beyond limited definitions encouraged by the institutions, their actors, and the dominant ideology. This literature opens a window into analyzing how teachers talk about their curriculum and instruction, as well as their engagement in the process of meaning making with their students.

The hope is to reveal evidence of practice that values local culture, realities, and places as they relate to marginalized students learning in diverse contexts. I hope to reveal more about the nuances of teacher agency and professionalism, and acknowledge the elements of power, and not only of the structural and oppressive variety. I argue, as many others do, that when decisions of educational actors are informed by meaningful and important contextual aspects of students' lives, students and communities become investors and stakeholders in definitions of knowledge, learning, and success leading to a culturally appropriate, justice-focused, and eco-friendly future.

CHAPTER 6: CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

The context of this research is the schools and the places where teachers work. Across most cases, the context in which teachers' work is the context in which students live. Students lived contexts are essential parts of their learning. Recognizing that teachers' knowledge of context is one of the barriers to contextualizing knowledge in curriculum and instruction, I acknowledge that Hawai'i is also a unique context to conduct research. Therefore, nuanced aspects of this research context should be considered in relationship to teachers' decisions as "any social, cultural, psychological, or pedagogical object of inquiry is inseparable from its context, the language used to describe it, its historical situatedness in a larger ongoing process, and the socially and culturally constructed interpretations of its meaning(s) as an entity in the world" (Kincheloe, 2001. P. 682).

I acknowledge that the research, data collection, and analysis is taking place in a unique indigenous context. Hawai'i is the native home of the Hawaiian people. All work and research done in Hawai'i should acknowledge those people who have come before and who are the rightful inhabitants of this land. Their place on their ancestral homelands have been complicated over the past 200 years. Hawaiians and their lands have experienced significant changes, many of which were brought about by processes and mindsets associated with colonization. This started with the arrival of predominately White European and North American explorers, merchants, and missionaries. These cultural and economically-minded social groups had significant influence on the historical and contemporary political, cultural, socio-economic, ecological, and educational contexts of Hawai'i and Hawaiian peoples. In order to both respect where the research is taking place and consider elements of the research context that both

TEACHERS DECISIONS

influence teachers' decisions or should be considered in the analysis of teachers' decisions, I share meaningful aspects of Hawai'i, and the Hawaiian context.

Hawai'i's Cultural and Socioeconomic Connections

Hawai'i is an incredibly diverse place in terms of culture and ethnicity. Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian are the indigenous population that make up about 21% of all peoples (Pew, 2015). Beyond this group, the demographic make-up of other is varied and complex. According to a recent study by the Department of Business, Economic Development and Tourism (DBEDT), approximately 25% of households in Hawai'i are multi-ethnic (DBEDT, 2018). A recent study noted that nearly 50% of marriages in the islands were of mixed ethnicity. Overall though, Hawai'i's population includes about 37% of ethnic and cultural groups associated with early migrant groups brought to work on the various Hawai'i plantations, and primarily sugar. This group includes Filipino, Japanese, and other East Asian ethnic groups, including Chinese, Korean, and Thai (Pew, 2015). Due to mixed ethnicity groups, identifying exact numbers on Hawai'i ethnicities can be challenging. For example, DBEDT (2018) suggests that 47% of the local population is Japanese and Filipino. In this study, more recent immigrant groups such as Samoans and Micronesian make up about 5% of the population, though much higher in certain communities. Similarly, those peoples identifying as White make up about 40% of the Hawai'i residents. With that said, it is important to note that Hawai'i is only state in which White students are not the majority cultural group across the public schools. Hawai'i's cultural demographics includes an ethnic diversity that is 15% percent more diverse than the next closest state.

Hawai'i as an Ecologically Unique Place

Geographically and ecologically speaking, Hawai'i is unique. Hawai'i island chain, located nearly 3,000 miles from the continental United States. Its contains large amount of both

TEACHERS DECISIONS

native and invasive flora and fauna. Its ecological environment is sensitive and intricately linked to the indigenous and resident culture. It includes spaces in which people and communities assert their political and cultural autonomy, as well as spaces that are indigenous and marginalized. Hawai‘i has a number of ecological challenges to sustainability that include invasive species, private ownership of land and luxury development that continues to be economically out of reach of many middle and working-class peoples, environmental degradations of resources that include fishing and gathering at the hands of military installments.

Colonial Connections to Hawai‘i’s Educational Context

Historical aspects of Hawai‘i’s colonial lineage reveals the islands as a space of continued imposition from outside forces and Hawai‘i’s contemporary society, economic, and ecology possesses unique contemporary challenges. The history of colonization has left Hawai‘i fraught with cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological challenges. Colonization has left many diverse and marginalized groups, Native Hawaiians in particular, outside of the economic and political power structures, and near the bottom on many measures of social, economic, and educational health and achievement (Kamehameha Schools, 2009; Kana‘iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003a). Rohrer (2010) shares how research in the context of Hawai‘i makes no sense outside of this colonial past evolving into a neo colonial present; one cannot understand Hawai‘i without confronting its legacy of colonialism. This context of imposition continues with outside federal education policy and its power. Hawai‘i’s socio-economic context is complicated by the diversity of cultures living in the islands. This includes groups that experience historical economic marginalization. Over 50% of children in Hawai‘i grow up in poverty. The majority of these children attend public school, and often in concentrated areas represented by underrepresented groups.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Hawai‘i’s Public School Context

Hawai‘i public school system is unlike any other state for two significant reasons: it is the only statewide-centralized system of education, and it is the only system of education spread across 6 uniquely different islands. The schools are separated into 15 different complex areas serving over 180,000 students and employing nearly 14,000 teachers across 287 public and public charter schools (HIDOE, 2010). This central aspect makes Hawai‘i’s school system approximately the 10th largest system of education in the United States.

HIDOE Teacher and Student Demographics in the Research Set

Hawai‘i is culturally, socioeconomically, and ecologically unique landscape with multiple islands and many diverse and distinct communities that are not only is home to indigenous peoples in Native Hawaiians, but also host to one of the most diverse populations of public school students in the United States. Students in the public school classrooms come from a variety of ethnic groups. As of 2014-2015 school year, the largest subgroup of students identified as Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian, or about 26% of the students (HIDOE, 2011). The next two largest student ethnic groups are of Filipino (22%), and White (17%) ethnic ancestry. The next notable subgroup is students who come from Japanese cultural backgrounds at approximately 9%. In 2015-2016, HIDOE public schools had about 11,000 students (or 6%) of students who are identified as English Language Learners (ELL). Of these learners in HIDOE public schools, a majority of these students, about 4% of the total HIDOE enrollment are coming to Hawai‘i from the Micronesian islands, the latter as a result of the Compact of Free Association (CFA) .

Hawai‘i public schools’ teacher ethnic demographics break down along slightly different lines. HIDOE teachers are represented largely from two dominant groups who make up nearly

TEACHERS DECISIONS

50% of all public and public charter school teachers (HIDOE, 2011). These two ethnic groups are Japanese (25%) and White (24%). The make-up of the teacher staff in the HIDOE is also populated by just under 10% of people from Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian ancestry, followed by Filipino (6.4%) and Chinese (3.6%).

Marginalized Aspects of the Research Context

Generally speaking, the broader sociocultural landscape of Hawai‘i is situated near the reality in which many students live in marginalized communities and have been measured as underperforming on high stakes tests. For example, 192 of 255 schools are designated Title I, or having percentages of students in poverty over 40%. Fully, more than 55 percent of all Native Hawaiian students attend a school that is in some stage of federally mandated restructuring (Kamehameha Schools, 2009). As a result of historical and contemporary situations, diverse and marginalized students in Hawai‘i are attending public schools that are directly targeted by accountability reforms. These educational realities are complicated by historical legacies which have left divided people, socioeconomic classes, and schools. For instance, Hawai‘i has the highest percentage of private school students in the country at nearly 15% of total enrollment in K-12 schools.

Hawai‘i’s Context for Reform

Hawai‘i is an ethnically diverse context that was a chosen “winner” of the normative mandates issued in United States Department of Education’s (USDOE) competition, Race to the Top (RTT) (HIDOE, 2010). RTT provided Hawai‘i’s Public Schools (HIDOE) with approximately \$75 Million allocated by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 to strengthen alignment with national priorities. This included raising standards, proliferating

TEACHERS DECISIONS

“high stakes” testing, encouraging the measurement of effectiveness, increasing streamlined processes, and improving the allocation of resources (HIDOE, 2010).

Hawai‘i’s size (10th largest school district in the country) and centralization creates a context in which implementation of federal education policy was pervasive. Policy makers and state administration argued that Hawai‘i public schools were considered the perfect site for rapid implementation, experimentation, and demonstration (HIDOE, 2010). The Hawai‘i Department of Education was (and still is) the only statewide district of education, and so, policy makers and state administration have argued that this helped Hawai‘i public schools to serve a site for rapid implementation. They also argued that Hawai‘i public schools were a “compelling” site for experimentation and demonstration of new mandates (HIDOE, 2010). HIDOE bureaucrats claimed that due to its consolidation of power with one superintendent and one Board of Education (BOE) there are reduced barriers to the implementation of the normative mandates. The HIDOE claimed that the public schools were “strongly positioned to make transformational leaps forward for its students with the flexible, focused resources provided by Race to the Top (HIDOE, 2010, p. 5).

The Reason for the Race

In the RTT application (2010), the Hawai‘i Department of Education was clear about its purpose. In the HIDOE commitment to receive the funding from the federal government was an admission that the “state’s economic future and quality of life depend on providing our youth with a world-class public education” (p. 3). The application states that RTT was, “an unprecedented collective effort to improve the education of Hawai‘i’s students and secure the economic future of the State (p. 6)” This was further articulated in statements indicating the state’s future being dependent on students’ success in careers and college —students “will be

TEACHERS DECISIONS

college- and career-ready, meaning they will be able to...earn a living wage job to support themselves and their families” (p. 3). Other reasons included: (a) raise overall K-12 student achievement; (b) ensure college- and career-readiness; (c) increase higher education enrollment and completion rates; (d) ensure equity and effectiveness by closing achievement gaps; and, (e) emphasize Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) competencies essential for college and career success in today’s world, and essential for the knowledge-based economy the State is dedicated to building. (HIDOE, 2010)

HIDOE’s Superintendent, Kathryn Matayoshi, reiterated these ideas, stating, “It’s really about teaching them how to work in this new world out there. We’re making a promise to parents about something that’s so important to them. So, we have to be very committed to delivering college- and career-ready graduates” (HIDOE, 2010). Her statement is consistent with the Hawai‘i DOE mission that clearly states that “all students are individual citizens to be collegiately prepared for competitive global economic career opportunities” (HIDOE, 2010).

Hawai‘i’s Public Schools’ Goals for Academic Achievement

To meet the mission of being a state with citizens prepared for a global career, the HIDOE (2010) claimed that schools needed to raise students’ performance on standardized testing. This included significantly improving students’ proficiency across ELA and mathematics, from the current 65% and 44%, respectively, to 100% proficiency by 2018. Another large concern of the state was the presence of achievement gaps. HIDOE indicates, “Native Hawaiian students and economically disadvantaged students experience the largest disparities in academic achievement” (p. 42). In response to this, HIDOE has a “commitment to close the achievement gaps between Hawai‘i’s students of different socioeconomic and racial/ethnic backgrounds,” (p. 10) and that

TEACHERS DECISIONS

academic progress and performance in Hawai‘i’s schools would mean closing the “persistent learning gaps exist between Native Hawaiian students and other racial and ethnic groups” (p. 4).

Hawai‘i’s Public Schools’ Mechanisms of Reform

In order to reach its lofty goals, the HIDOE (2010) took action in a 5-part plan. This plan includes the implementation of Common Core State Standards (CCSS), a statewide common curriculum, common statewide assessments, common goals of learning and achievement, the development of a highly centralized data monitoring system that teachers could use for “immediate feedback” for improving student performance, create a system for attributing students test results to individual teachers, target schools that are in significant need, and create organizational efficiencies to leverage financial funding to facilitate increased accountability. According to the HIDOE, the problem was that “like many states, the challenge Hawai‘i faces is not in adopting internationally-benchmarked standards; it is in ensuring full and faithful implementation of these expectations for all students— and especially for struggling students and schools” (p. 52). Hawai‘i needed to “implement a thorough rollout plan for the K-12 CCSS in English Language Arts and Mathematics that includes statewide implementation of a consistent Common Core Curriculum and high-quality aligned instructional materials and resources” (p. 52). By CCSS, HIDOE was provided a welcome opportunity to implement a standardized, statewide curriculum with common instructional materials for all tested subjects. Despite Hawai‘i’s unique status as the only state where one agency manages state, district, and local education, schools and complexes previously retained the authority to choose and implement their own curricula. From the HIDOE (2010) perspective, the goal was to establish a single, common, statewide curriculum to help raise student achievement by: minimizing the gap in learning for marginalized students; promoting effective teaching through consistent training and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

coaching across the state; administering common formative, interim, and summative (including end-of-course) assessments aligned to the curriculum in order to gauge how well students have learned content, and these assessment relate to the CCSS and in comparison to their peers across the state and the nation; and, implementing the curriculum with fidelity statewide, HIDOE will conduct extensive training on the CCSS and new curriculum materials.

While these policies appear top heavy, and mandate the work of teachers, teachers may use their best professional judgment, so long as they get administrator approval. According to HIDOE RTT policies, teachers might supplement (but not replace) the Common Core Curriculum with units or lessons that enhanced the common instructional materials and engaged students in meaningful, real-world contexts, especially lessons that incorporate Native Hawaiian culture, regional strengths, and STEM fields and learning (HIDOE, 2010). For example, a Geometry teacher might enhance the unit on right triangle trigonometry by partnering with her Career and Technical Education teacher on its real-life applications in the construction industry, or a group of high school science teachers on the Big Island might supplement the curriculum with interdisciplinary units on the study of volcanoes. The intent, however, was to supplement, not replace, the Core Curriculum (HIDOE, 2010).

Hawai'i's Public School's Restructuring Plans

The appointed officials of the Hawai'i Board of Education claim to have focused initiatives on budget transparency for fiscal accountability and the development of rigorous and measured success (HIDOE, 2010). According to the Hawai'i Department of Education, nearly 40% (98 of 286) of Hawai'i DOE schools are in some form of restructuring for NCLB, including the majority of elementary, intermediate, and high schools serving students who come from underrepresented groups, have a large percentage of Native Hawaiians, English Language

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Learners, or special education students. As of 2013, 61% of HIDOE public schools had not achieved learning benchmarks required to meet of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), a school's overall performance on high-stakes or end-of-course exams, as set forth by *NCLB*. While nearly 40% (98 of 286) of Hawai'i Department of Education (HIDOE) schools were in some form of restructuring for *NCLB*, including many intermediate and high schools serving majority Native Hawaiians. Examples of public schools in Hawai'i serving Native Hawaiian populations and measured to be underachieving are the Nanakuli-Waianae and Honokaa-Kealakehe-Kohala-Konawaena complexes that serve a nearly 50% Native Hawaiian population. These schools and their Hawaiian students are at or near the bottom on HSA (Hawai'i State Assessment) academic performance measures for reading, writing, and mathematical proficiency (Kamehameha Schools, 2009). Over 55 percent of all Native Hawaiian students attended schools in restructuring (Kamehameha Schools, 2009).

This designation places them squarely in the focus of *NCLB* and in the crosshairs of the contemporary educational reform groups. With RTT, these schools were provided additional structural support via The HIDOE reorganization plan included the development of Zones for Innovation (ZOI). ZOI, were a group of schools, many of which were in Native Hawaiian and lower income communities, identified as the lowest achieving and therefore the schools and students who stood to benefit the most from resources and adjustments. Schools that do not pass AYP will have additional mandated structural adjustment initiatives levied against them, and will be forced to spend portions of their budgets on scripted and outsider programming focused on increasing the quality of curriculum and instruction to ensure the required performance of student on standardized academic measures. Beyond the adoption of universal curriculum and scripted instruction, schools who fail to meet AYP measures can be made to restructure with new staff and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

policy. These structural adjustments include the firing of teachers and administrators, which would be foundational to any debate over control over one's own education. There are examples in Native Hawaiian contexts of local administrators who are removed from their low-performing schools in favor of an outside professionals who are experts in managing the accountability reforms and Race to the Top funding, designed to encourage schools to compete for federal money based on their ability to demonstrate student achievement of common curriculum using scientific and standard measures.

The Evaluation of Hawai'i's Race to the Top Work

Through this process, Hawai'i had to endure the transition from a political outcast placed on "high risk status" by the United States Department of Education to a state that eventually turned into the biggest and most robust implementation of federal policy. Former US Secretary of Education, Arne Duncan called the state's efforts "to challenge the status quo" as "extraordinary" (HIDOE, 2014; USDOE, 2011). Also, while initially chastised by the federal government for the perceived problematic compliance with federal regulations of educational reform, Hawai'i was later lauded as the "poster child" with the most extensive and comprehensive implementation of the RTT policy initiative.

Native Hawaiians as the Target of Reform

Native Hawaiians, the descendants from the original population of indigenous inhabitants of the islands, represents the largest ethnic group in public schools. Tibbets (2014) notes that Native Hawaiians have experienced "historical trauma and cultural marginalization". Native Hawaiians are specifically targeted by state and federal government legislation and policy due to the fact that they have been labeled as the lowest academically performing group in Hawai'i public schools, and experienced the highest rates of poverty (Tibbets, 2014). In addition

TEACHERS DECISIONS

to comprehensive legislation like No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and Race to the Top (RTT) targeting Native Hawaiian students, the U.S. government passed the Native Hawaiian Education Act (NHEA) in 1988 to acknowledge its special role in providing educational opportunities for Native Hawaiian students. This relationship between Native Hawaiians and the United States federal government is fraught with colonial imposition and cultural disconnect. Each of these, among other casualties, suffered under colonization contributed to contemporary cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological challenges experienced by Native Hawaiian people. For example, Native Hawaiians have the highest rates of poverty and government assistance among all major ethnic groups (Kamehameha Schools, 2014). Similarly, Native Hawaiians experience higher rates of social inequality as evidenced by school completion, mortality, and life expectancy (Kamehameha Schools, 2014).

A complicated cycle of academic achievement, educational attainment, and access to social resources for Native Hawaiian communities exists. Native Hawaiians on a whole, and more so than other ethnic groups, experience social factors that contribute to marginalization. Hawaiian students are most likely to experience social and educational inequalities resulting from inequalities associated with economic capital and educational attainment (Kamehameha Schools, 2009; Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003a). Similar to other marginalized groups, and by almost all standardized academic measures, Hawaiian students are scoring below their peers in in terms of academic achievement (Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003; Maaka, 2005).

As a result, Native Hawaiian students are often attending schools designated to be failing. Many of these schools are at or near the bottom of academic performance on standardized measures for reading, writing, and mathematical proficiency (Kamehameha Schools, 2009). As a result, Native Hawaiian students are being targeted for educational reform. Schools serving

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Native Hawaiians are often described as a “problem” in need of corrective action (Kana‘iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003). In Hawai‘i public schools, educational reformers claimed to address the “problem” of low performing students and failing Hawai‘i schools. Reformers often operate with a lens known as the deficiency model that portrayed Native Hawaiian students and communities as a problematic and even lacking in proper knowledge, values, as articulated by a demonstrated record of performance on standardized academic tests. In order to correct these deficiencies, dominant education reform in Hawai‘i employs explicit rhetoric of progress and success achieved through “research-based” prescriptive accountability measures. These corrective school restructuring and standardizing efforts and practice are designed to “equalize” the playing field by providing a “quality” education for all students. Equalization and standardization of educational inputs allows accountability reform frameworks to operate a “data driven” evaluative model of standards, measurement, assessment, and accountability, which will ensure quality and solve the “problem” of underperforming schools serving Native Hawaiians (Kana‘iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003).

These underperforming schools included a majority of those serving Native Hawaiian students in rural and remote communities. In the 2011-2012 school year, eight of nine public schools in the Nanakuli-Waianae complex area, a region home to the largest number of Hawaiian households and the furthest population center from the economic and political hub of Honolulu, were in some form of restructuring or corrective action based almost exclusively on student performance on standardized testing. Additionally, on the rural and remote Hawai‘i island, complex of Honokaa-Kealakehe-Kohala-Konawaena, had 12 of 19 schools in some stage of restructuring or corrective action. On Hawai‘i island, the complex of Kau-Keaau-Pahoa had 8 of 9 schools in some stage of corrective reform. As recent as 2009, 76% of school with a majority of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Native Hawaiian students are in some form of restructuring, and over 55% of all Native Hawaiian students attend a school that is in restructuring as a result of *NCLB* (Kekahio, 2007, Kamehameha Schools, 2009). This left Native Hawaiian students and communities as the explicit target of the accountability reform movement. This targeting by western influences and powerful governments can be traced back to the beginning of the Hawaiian colonial period.

Hawai‘i’s Disconnect

Historically speaking, public schools in Hawai‘i are a political space where educational colonialism worked to undermine the role of language and culture in the teaching of local students, and most importantly Native Hawaiians (Kaomea, 2005, 2012; Kamehameha Schools, 2009). Local Hawaiian cultural values and knowledge remain unaccounted for as conservative scholars and private educational professionals advocated for scientifically proven and scripted curriculums which do not allow teachers to “teach whatever they like” or teach things outside of officially sanctioned curriculum (Hess & Squire, 2009). These initiatives are advocated by neoconservative policy makers and administered by government bureaucrats and often implemented by for-profit, private educational service providers, like “America’s Choice” or “Edison.” These providers Hawai‘i have little-to-no-knowledge of Hawai‘i or its context (Maaka, 2005) and are furthering ideological and cultural imposition.

In the previous two chapters I described both standardized and contextualized teaching practices. Standardized practices, associated with neoliberal ideology and accountability reform were designed to “correct” the problem of student performance in diverse and marginalized contexts. These policies built upon explicit ideological foundations, theoretical orientations, and educational practices that are constructed outside the context of teachers’ decisions in Hawai‘i classrooms. These reforms have been imposed on various contexts as a result of contexts being

TEACHERS DECISIONS

constructed as in crisis and in need of regulation and outside control. Contextualized practices, on the other hand, start from ideological points that recognize the historical and social injustices. culture-based, critical, and place based pedagogies value the lived context of the student and the community. Educators who utilize contextualized pedagogies recognize that schools have not always been safe places for diverse and marginalized students. The development of these pedagogies and teaching practices acknowledges a people's histories when school was a place where "minorities" have found a lack of relevant connections to their culture and experiences thus leaving it as a place with the potential for imposition, exploitation, and oppression (Strike & Soltis, 2004; Weisner et al., 1988).

Research suggests that Native Hawaiian and other marginalized students are wrestling to find opportunities in school to develop meaningful connections to their cultural identity (Benham, 2006; Benham & Heck, 1998). These disconnects play a role in students' struggle to find success, as defined by graduation rates, student engagement, and academic achievement (Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003a). Without demonstrated success, academic achievement, and educational attainment required to access opportunities for social and economic rewards, leaving them in a marginalized status that has potential clinical ramifications for the perpetuation of social and cultural sustainability (Benham & Heck, 1998; Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003).

Educational Opportunities for Resistance

While accountability policy, mechanisms, practices, and measures remain dominant means of school reform, they are not alone in their attempts to improve educational outcomes for diverse and marginalized learners. In order to create a more nuanced understanding of educational reform and give credence to alternative reform efforts, we should acknowledge that other reforms have been initiated in various contexts for various reasons. There are many voices interested in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

reform efforts, and some of them are more closely linked, socially, culturally, and ecologically, to the communities they are influencing. Many of the alternative reforms have been explicitly designed from paradigms with equally long histories attempting to alleviate social and economic stresses associated with low academic achievement for diverse and marginalized learners. As opposed to the often-imported accountability reform mechanisms, some educational research and practice taking place in Hawai‘i is from Hawai‘i. Much of this work has been focused on the development of alternative approaches to education that support diversity and respect our geographic environment. This includes the development of culture and contextual based teaching practices, the use and prevalence of these pedagogies in schools, and the relationship of these practices to positive educational outcomes and student achievement for marginalized students (Kana‘iaupuni, Ledward & Jensen, 2010; Tharp, et al., 2000).

Conclusion

A brief and critical exposition of Hawai‘i’s historical and contemporary contexts reveal a series of impositions from outside sources. I construct this history through a critical lens, as the social transformation of Hawaiian society and the disenfranchisement of Hawaiian people paints a clear picture of cultural, socio-economic, ecological, and educational imposition. With that said, as new people and new ideas arrived in the islands (and Hawaiian ways were imposed upon), they also adapted, adopted, and resisted western ways, retaining and maintaining Hawaiian cultural values, language, and systems.

In particular that Hawai‘i is a historically, culturally, socially, ecologically, and educationally “contested” context. It is a context of imposition, tension, and resistance. Colonial history began with the arrival of the first merchants and missionaries in the late 1700s and early 1800s, and the resultant impositions, tensions and resistances persist today. Through it all,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Hawai‘i maintains a vibrant indigenous culture and diverse, multicultural society. Hawai‘i is a context in which it is important to consider the process and ramifications of the colonial past, present, and future, and view the society as constantly evolving.

While this research is not specifically focused on the education of Native Hawaiian students, this research is conducted in Hawai‘i, and Native Hawaiian communities, teachers, and students who participated in the research. Therefore, I have a responsibility to be mindful of the legacy of imposition and the resulting inequalities for Native Hawaiians. These historical interpretations of imposition and control contribute to an understanding of the contemporary relationship between education policy and our diverse and marginalized communities, of which many are Native Hawaiian. This exploration contributes to fostering a dialogue and awareness of these social justice issues. With this critical framework of understanding, I advocate for the idea that education, when democratically, authentically, and contextually designed and assessed, provides students opportunities to engage with the world that they live in, and develop contextually relevant knowledge and practices that result in authentic and nuanced ideals of success and cultural sustainability. This study hopes to contribute to a conversation and body of work devoted to complicate a documented past that historians have noted includes purposeful challenges to procurement of education for marginalized groups by those who felt “quality” education would lead for increased equitable distribution of economic, political, and social authority (Menton & Tamura, 1989).

Colonial history resulted in loss of native populations through war and diseases, loss of cultural due to the imposition of new cultural institutions, the loss of land through political and economic usurpation, and loss political power and sovereignty due largely in part to the illegal overthrow of Hawai‘i’s constitutional monarchy by outsiders from the United States. It is

TEACHERS DECISIONS

meaningful for anyone trying to understand the influences on the education system in Hawai‘i and in particular teachers’ decisions within curriculum and instruction as it relates to the barriers of contextualization.

The significance of the colonial history of Hawai‘i cannot be understated in terms of this research. Education in Hawai‘i, on which people’s lives are grown, relies on the cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological context for survival. Yet powerful outside interests, with the support and backing of the United States government and using the threat of financial accountability, are again attempting to rework the context of Hawai‘i in their own image. Hand in hand with government bureaucracies, vested in explicit ideological aims, and manufactured in crisis, these reformers seek outcomes that are consistent with the maintenance of their own power. These reformers are interested in changing the cultural landscape of a diverse context. They are interested in the development of socio economic for their own security and wealth. They are interested in the continued domination of an ecological landscape by neglecting the deep-rooted connections of the citizens to the land. As a result of this system, one that has been proven to contribute negatively to the academic and educational outcomes of diverse and marginalized people, political and economic power continues to be vested in the political and economic elites.

CHAPTER 7: THE RESEARCH PROJECT: HIGHLIGHTING EFFECTIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES (HETS)

My dissertation research is built on interviews with teachers located within a larger research project called Highlighting Effective Teaching Strategies (HETS). HETS was designed to develop a video library of teacher practice and to support the development of general understanding and professional learning around teachers' everyday classroom practice. Overall, HETS sought to bring these real-world examples, and analysis of them, to pre-service and in-service teachers who are developing their professional practice. Further, the HETS project was also designed to provide researchers with opportunities to interpret and review teachers' work and perspectives on this work. In this chapter, I will describe this project and its data collection methods as an introduction to how the interviews fit into my dissertation research. The entirety of the materials collected through HETS required nearly five years to complete, though most of the fieldwork and data collection was done over a two-year period. This work is the result of contributions of many who saw its value in supporting the development of teachers and public schools in general. The most immediate members of the project building the data set consisted of myself and one video production and media specialist.

Description of Larger Project

Highlighting Effective Teaching Strategies (HETS; hets.leeward.hawaii.edu) is based on the premise that Hawai'i's best teachers are our best resources in helping to model effective teaching practices and inspire professional for aspiring preservice and in-service educators. The objective was to collect evidence of teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts to create some space to engage teachers and educational professionals in a meaningful conversation about

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teaching and pedagogy. In this way, the interest of the larger project, and the goals of this dissertation are similar.

The research team visited 16 schools, 35 classrooms, and recorded 57 lesson observations. Overall, the data set includes nearly 200 teacher interviews that focus on classrooms lessons and teachers' perspectives on curriculum and instruction. All research was conducted in Hawai'i Department of Education (HIDOE) public and public charter schools. Generally speaking, teachers worked in a range of K-12 grade levels and all but 13 of the lesson were in the core subject areas of English language arts (ELA), math, science, and social studies. All participants were teachers and students in public and public charter schools.

The project focused on teachers' practice as individual lesson cases. Each case has had consistent components across the data set, including the collection of field texts and development of research materials. Each case was organized into three separate videos of classroom instruction documenting the observation of practice and four teacher interviews. We filmed the lesson from different classroom angles allowing for a richer collection of information in the field setting. The primary angle focuses on tracking the teacher at the request of HIDOE. The entire data set includes videos of practice from three different angles: teacher-focused, a wide-angle of the classroom, and some student-work angles. Each lesson case contains pre-instructional, curriculum materials, and post-instructional interviews. Debriefing interviews were conducted with all the teacher participants, but were not video recorded. Additionally, all videos of practice and interviews were transcribed.

The video library is accessible online and is licensed for Creative Commons (CC) at hawaii.leeward.hawaii.edu. All research materials are catalogued in databases which separated the research materials into lesson-cases (lessons: <https://bit.ly/2ICzxDo>). Each case includes the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

entirety of all the data collected. These data sheets contain contextual descriptions of the participants and participating schools and are organized by lessons: <https://goo.gl/HmX48K>, by context: <https://goo.gl/G6TBQg>, and by Common Core subject area: <https://goo.gl/da4MSZ>).

Timeline

The five-year HETS research project included multiple phases, each requiring extensive time and effort. These phases included: project design and development, funding sources, project timeline, securing access to public schools, risk mitigation, reciprocity, sampling of professional teacher participants, brief description of the participants, and limitations of the field texts. HETS was organized into four separate phases: design and development, data collection, organization, and hosting. In development phase over the first 18 months, the project sought consultation in partnership with the Hawai‘i Department of Education (HIDOE). This relied primarily on communicating with the Office of Data Governance (ODG) to ensure that protocols were in place and being followed. Major areas of concern were for the Personally Identifiable Information (PII) of students and teachers, the consent to be filmed and researched given by teachers, students, and the parents or legal guardians of the students. The project was submitted for approval to the University of Hawai‘i Human Studies Institutional Review Board (UH-IRB) and the HIDOE office of data governance (ODG). These institutions reviewed and approved the project based on our ability to ensure that the participants in the study were well informed and rightfully protected. They also required statements that included the mitigation of any risk to the participants.

Initially, a pilot school site was selected through communication with the HIDOE Office of Curriculum and Instruction for Student Support (OCISS). The pilot school was selected based on a couple of factors. One was the high percentage of teachers rated as “highly effective” on

TEACHERS DECISIONS

the HIDOE observational method for teacher evaluation. Another was the willingness of administrators and teachers to host the research team in a pilot phase. All subsequent school sites and participants were selected in consultation with HIDOE administration, district resource teachers, Human Resources (HR) and school site administrators who had been informed about the project through a series of professional presentations at district meetings. The project desired the opportunity to research in school sites in diverse and marginalized communities, and as a result the solicitation of participants was focused on these educational contexts. We had over 75 teachers apply to be filmed across school sites, most of whom were encouraged to do so as an opportunity at professional development and to model effective instruction for peer teachers. Additionally, the HETS project supported teachers with stipends. Teachers were compensated \$625 for each cycle of observation which included initial consultation, classroom visits, three interviews, one lesson observation, and a video viewing, debriefing, and approval process after the videos were prepared for sharing. Eventually, we partnered with 16 schools and 35 teachers to produce 57 lessons comprised of over 150 hours of video recordings of teacher's professional practices and perspectives.

In the final phase, all video and transcriptions were reviewed for personally identifiable information. If personally identifiable information was found, such as students and school names, it was edited out from the research materials. All research material edits made to protect participants in the study were approved by the classroom teachers, as well as the HIDOE offices of Curriculum, Instruction, and Student Support (OCISS) and the Office of Data Governance (ODG). All final versions of the videos were shared HIDOE partners in an effort to ensure the videos were appropriate for the wider audience of practitioners around the state. In the final phase, we evaluated the project for its ability to be scalable and reproducible, as well as its

TEACHERS DECISIONS

immediate utility to pre-service and in-service teachers and administrators. Currently, the videos from this larger project are being used in university and college coursework, and in the professional learning opportunities provided by the state.

Reciprocity

For the sake of reciprocity and mutual benefit, HETS included the design, development, testing, and implementation of an indexing process in order to understand the content of the videos in relationship to professional networks of practice. These professional frameworks for effective teaching were identified by HIDOE priorities. For indexing purposes, we used the framework of practice and observation cycle that HIDOE currently deploys to evaluate teachers. While not a part of this study, the research team hosted over 50 administrators, specialists, teachers, and resource providers at Leeward Community College over the course of two, two-day workshops. Participants were required to engage in professional conversation around video evidence of effective teaching practice. As a result, the videos of practice are indexed for evidence of effective teaching according to this framework. Rationales were constructed by the video reviewers and general timestamps were created to point to the evidence in the videos.

Funding and Compensation

HETS was funded by the University of Hawai‘i-Leeward Community College in conjunction with a grant from the federal government’s Department of Labor, Employment, and Training Administration (DOLETA). It was carried out as a partnership between local education agencies, including: The University of Hawai‘i (UH), University of Hawai‘i Community Colleges (UHCC), Hawai‘i Department of Education (HIDOE), Hawai‘i State Teachers Association (HSTA), and with the consultation with Kamehameha Schools (KS). The granting agency provided finances for the research through the Trade Adjustment Assistance Community

TEACHERS DECISIONS

College and Career Training (TAACCCT) grant program. This program was designed to “increase the ability of community colleges to address the challenges of today’s workforce” (DOLETA, 2011). This grant program was offered to the University of Hawai‘i Community College’s (UHCC) in September, 2012. Through a selection and negotiation process it was determined that the Teacher Education Program (TEP) at Leeward Community College was in a unique position to be able to support workforce development in the area of teacher preparation. The funds were used for a number of projects and initiatives.

Access to Hawai‘i Department of Education Schools

Permission was needed at several levels to conduct the HETS qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 2008). This included consultation across these agencies prior to and during data collection procedures to ensure effective and ethical research protocols and in order to maximize reciprocity among the groups. The project went to all reasonable lengths ensure that the data was collected with full consent of the partnering institutions and research participants. The project was reviewed and approved by the University Institutional Review Board (IRB) as well as administration from University of Hawai‘i and the Hawai‘i Department of education, including the Superintendent of Public Schools.

Permission for the HETS project relied primarily on a partnership between the University of Hawai‘i-Leeward CC and the Hawai‘i Department of Education (HIDOE). Initially, the project was stewarded by members of the Office of Curriculum, Instruction, and Student Support (OCISS) and Office of Human Resources (OHR). They helped to identify some HIDOE priorities for the reciprocity, taking into consideration what would be the most useful for teachers and students. In particular, the HIDOE was looking for examples of effective instructional practices for mathematics and language arts demonstrating use of statewide curriculum. Even

TEACHERS DECISIONS

with the established focus, and due to the breath of the project interests, we were encouraged to include a diversity of subject areas, including science and social studies. Given the diverse use of the videos, HIDOE encouraged the research project to focus on the creation of a data set that recorded the work of teachers in their classrooms. They suggested that we include pre and post interviews, and video angles of the teacher, classroom, and student work. By defining standard parameters for the data set, the videos and transcripts could then be reviewed, interpreted, indexed, or analyzed based on the needs of the researcher or end user. We were also encouraged to film in a variety of school sites.

Once there was a clearer picture of what the reciprocity value of the project would be, I worked directly with representatives from of the HIDOE office of data governance to craft the permissions, particularly the consent and assent forms for teachers, parents, and students. This process took place over an 18-month period and ensured that we were following both ethical and legal guidelines. The Hawai'i State Ethics Commission (HSEC) was consulted for their expertise. The primary concerns here were respecting students personally identifiable information (PII) and minimizing risk to any of the participants. In this process, the purpose of the study and its objectives were communicated. The methods for data collection and analysis were shared. It was acknowledged that some of the populations involved in the research of humans were vulnerable populations. This was primarily for the consideration of students in the video lesson observations. Ethical research protocols were described in order to mitigate vulnerability. All students and their guardians provided consent to participate in the research. All participants, including the parents, have complete control over their own participation in the research and could opt out at any time. Efforts were made to minimize our impact on the teachers and classrooms, by using wireless and compact video tools.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Participant risks. Research taking place in a K-12 public school setting is a sensitive issue, especially as it relates to the risks to the participants, and given that many participants are a part of vulnerable populations, including students and indigenous peoples.

Risk to students. There were several steps taken to minimize any potential threats to students. Some of the research materials included the collection of personally identifiable information. Participants did give their permission for this to occur. Students and their guardians were fully informed about the project before it began and signed consent or assent forms. All participants were able to opt out of the research at any time. Another critical part to mitigate risk included the review of all video by UH-LEECC and HIDOE personnel to ensure that student PII will be managed according to the applicable federal and state laws and regulations and HIDOE protocols.

One of the primary concerns of all permission granting bodies was the legality regarding people's individual information and the risk to the participants. In order to mitigate the amount of PII in the video data set, the project went to great lengths to edit the videos for PII. To the best of our capacity and ability, PII was removed from the videos and evidence including PII and non-consenting participants was destroyed per our data sharing agreement with HIDOE. Additionally, all videos were reviewed by the HIDOE Office of Data Governance (ODG), and viewed by the Office of Curriculum, Instruction, and Student Support (OCISS). In addition, a secondary University of Hawai'i research team from Intergroup Social Perception Lab (ISP) in the psychology department helped to ensure that the videos contained minimal evidence of any students and teachers' identifiable information. All videos and transcripts were "cleaned" for PII. Additionally, videos are reviewed by teachers and HIDOE employees for inappropriate material.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In the process of filming, stress to students was minimized by introducing students to the taping equipment and the media and content expert team as the beginning of the taping. All attempts were made to minimize distractions and disruptions to the normal daily routines and activities. Whenever possible students were excluded from the frame of the videotaping and shooting was attempted from angles that conceal the identity of students whenever possible or upon request.

Risk to teachers. As a result of the focus on teachers in diverse and marginalized contexts, the researchers identified a number of risks. The risks were primarily associated with the teachers consented to participate in the videotaped interviews. We expected that teachers might experience stress related to being filmed and discomfort being interviewed. Further, any potential disruption to the normal practices taking place in the classroom could also impact teachers' demeanor. Concern over use of the data and time commitment to HETS were also considered in terms of teachers' expectations.

In order to mediate these risks, we made participation voluntary and gave the power to teachers withdraw at any time. Teachers controlled the scheduling of filming, selected the lessons to be taped and participated in the editing process. Teachers did not have to answer any questions that they do not want to answer. Teachers previewed the interview questions, question format, and film structure prior to consent to participate. Teachers also had the power to postpone or terminate any part of the process. Teachers were invited to share in the editing process and reserved the right to request that video data not be shared.

Feedback mechanisms. Additionally, feedback mechanisms were part of the process so that participants and viewers could report concerns on an ongoing basis. HETS project is in a position to remove and edit unwanted research materials. While we have yet to receive any

TEACHERS DECISIONS

complaints from research participants, we have received a request from the HIDEOE to remove one video from the final public data set. The research proposal was given permission from the UH-IRB office to conduct the study involving human subjects from the dates 02/2014 until 02/2019.

Consent. Generally speaking, we covered all these potential risks and mitigations in the consenting process. Once I secured permission to conduct the HETS study, I solicited the partnership of principals who were interested in supporting the work. In the beginning, principals hand-selected teachers and served as gatekeepers at each of the school sites. A gatekeeper is an individual who has a role at the site with regards to permitting access. When teachers chose to participate in the project, when went through a series of research protocols before we collected data. The research team visited with teachers to gauge their interest in participation. This included explanatory visits, consent and assent form dissemination and collection, and introductions of researchers to the students.

Consent and assent forms covered the scope and purpose of the project and the potential uses of the data. All forms contained audience appropriate language for grade level K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and 9-12. Information was provided about the activities students will be engaged in, and how our work will not disrupt the daily operation of the classroom, minus 2 videographers strategically positioned in the classroom. We were clear about the confidentiality of data, benefits and risks of participation, and ability to stop participation in the research at any time. All teachers' students, who are at least 18 years of age, provided informed consent. Parents and/or guardians of student participants under the age of 18 years provided informed consent. All students under the age of 18 appearing in the videos provided informed assent.

Participants

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Our target population for this research was high quality teachers working in culturally diverse and economically marginalized schools. These interviews from these specific participants allow for an in-depth exploration of the research focus (Creswell, 2008). We wanted to maximize our opportunity to interpret multiple voices and perspectives from a wide range of teachers in order to inform our making sense of this complex social process. Overall 30 teachers volunteered to participate in the research. The participants and research sites represents teacher diversity and variation among the different school contexts. In order to find these teachers and sites, the research employed a combination of purposeful sampling, “the common element is that participants are selected according to predetermined criteria relevant to a particular research objective” (Guest, 2006, p. 61), being opportunistic at times and utilizing voluntary participation.

Since the core interest of the larger study was “effective” teacher practices, and this research looked at teacher’s decisions and perceptions as they relate to policy, pedagogy, and context, we purposefully asked the Hawai‘i Department of Education to identify teachers that were designated as “highly effective” on their annual evaluation. This rating system used a number of measures: student growth on standardized tests, description of quality instruction leading to the achievement of standards driven student learning outcomes, observations of teacher’s instructional practice, student perception surveys, and acts of leadership and professionalism. HIDEOE identified “hotbeds” of “Highly Effective” practice in Leeward complex areas and Zones of School Innovation (ZSI). We looked for teachers who were deemed “distinguished” on their annual observational evaluations conducted by their school administrators.

The project solicited principals' institutional and human resource knowledge to suggest potential project participants that meet the qualifications and might have the capacity to complete

TEACHERS DECISIONS

the project. These were schools with high percentages of teachers receive were selected to participate by their principals and/or encouraged by educational effectiveness system educational officers, district specialists, or through a network of nationally board certified teachers. The sampling included some “snowballing” as teacher heard about the project, and were asked to participate rather based on perceptions of them as being a “good” practitioner, as opposed to any “official” status. So as the research went on, rather than using principals, or the rating system, we gained access to participants through individuals who were more familiar with teachers, and their beliefs and practices across many schools. Additionally, many of the professionals were purposefully selecting teachers based on their particular approach to teaching. These approaches have included culture-based pedagogies, philosophy for children, National Board Certified Teachers, Career and Technical Educators, and a host of others.

Recognizing this study sought to both acknowledge and confront issues associated with education reform in diverse and marginalized educational contexts, it was important that these contexts were represented. These include Title I schools in both urban and rural contexts, high school and elementary. I wanted to focus primarily on Common Core subject areas, as they are associated with state mandated curriculums. Similarly, since the theoretical frame of the inquiry includes questions that examine a range of cultural, class, and ecological disconnects that exist in schools, and as such the participants included teachers who are both from the research setting as well as those who are not. Overall, the teacher sample was mostly representative of the current demographics of teachers in the Hawai‘i Department of Education.

Participant Procedures

Once potential participants have been identified, the project team sent out an initial contact email to a teacher that includes a demographic survey instrument. The survey collected

TEACHERS DECISIONS

general demographic information such as: gender, age, birthplace, ethnicity, community living in, languages spoken, and amount of time living in Hawai'i. It also recorded teacher's professional aspects of school name, grade level, subject area, degree attained, years teaching, years at school, professional credentials, professional development, and prior professional work. In addition to the demographic information, two questions addressed teachers' general interest in the project and level of commitment. Based on the information from the demographic profiles, we selected a purposeful sample of teachers representing the diversity of the teaching profession in the state of Hawai'i. Most of the teachers were veteran teachers with varying degrees and levels of education, and teachers representing various ethnic backgrounds.

From the Context of HETS to the Context of the Research Set

The following section describes the facets of contexts of the research set of interviews used for the forthcoming analysis. I include teacher and student demographics, socioeconomic contexts of schools, ecological contexts, and a general description of marginalized contexts.

School and Student Cultural Context in the Research Set

As shown in the table, schools in this study were represented by a number of different student cultural and ethnic demographics including Hawaiian, Part-Hawaiian, Filipino, Micronesian, Japanese, White, Samoan, Chinese and others. Schools consisted of a mix of ethnicities representing a majority cultural group or the largest student demographic represented in the school. Five of the 14 schools had student populations of over 50% coming from one cultural groups. Two of these five schools had a majority of Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian students, two of these schools had a majority of Filipino students, and one of these schools had a majority of White students. Other cultural demographics of note included populations of students that made up more than a fifth of the school's student population.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 1. School Demographics- Significant Cultural Groups

<i>School Setting</i>	Schools	Lessons	Title I - lessons
<i>Majority Cultural Group</i>			
Native Hawaiian Part/Hawaiian-Majority	2	7	7
White-Majority	1	5	0
Filipino-Majority	2	2	2
East Asian-Majority	0	0	0
<i>Highest Percentage but not Majority</i>			
Native Hawaiian-Highest	2	5	5
White-Highest	3	14	0
Filipino-Highest	1	2	2
East Asian-Highest	3	8	2
Micronesian-Highest	1	6	6
<i>Represented with over 20% but not highest</i>			
Native Hawaiian-over 20% but not highest	2	20	9
White-over 20% but not highest	1	11	2
Filipino-over 20% but not highest	3	12	8
East Asian-over 20% but not highest	3	8	3

Approximately 15% of the teacher interviews were filmed at schools where Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian students represented a majority of the school populations or the largest single ethnic group. Three of those interviews were filmed at schools with more than 70% Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian students. Overall, 32 of 46 lessons and 64 of 92 interviews were filmed at

TEACHERS DECISIONS

schools with more than one-fifth of students who identify as Native Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian Students.

Approximately 20% of the interviews were recorded at school sites with White students as the largest percentage cultural background, while only one public school had a majority White majority student population. Approximately 20% of the interviews were recorded at schools where Filipino students constituted the largest student demographic. This included two schools with over 60% Filipino majority of students. Only one of the schools in the study listed Japanese students as its highest percentage of identified ethnicity, and in that case, Japanese students only constituted one quarter of the students. Overall, just about 20% of the lessons and interviews were filmed were in schools with more than 20% Japanese students. Across the data set, other significant percentages of student ethnicity included two school sites with over 10% Micronesian students, with one school having 29% Micronesian student population reported. This same school site reported having 20% Samoan students.

School and Student Socioeconomic Context in the Research Set

More than 50% of the students in the study were eligible for free and reduced lunch. As such, the majority of the schools in this study were Title I schools. This federal designation was based on over 40% of students receiving free and reduced lunch (FRL). The range of free and reduced lunch percentages among the Title I schools ranged from 47%-91%. More than one-third of all of the lessons and interviews came from schools with over 60% of students receiving FRL. These demographics seem to align with a recent HIDOE Superintendent's report (2015-16), which suggested that approximately 91,000 of the 180,000 (or 51%) of public and public charter school students are identified as “disadvantaged”.

Demographic Table 2. School Context- Socioeconomics

School Setting	Schools	Teachers	Lessons	Interviews
Non-Title I	5	14	22	44
Title I schools	9	14	24	48
Title I - Over 40% FRL	2	3	5	10
Title I - Over 60% FRL (MARG) and over 60% underrepresented groups	7	11	19	38

School and Student Ecological Context in the Research Set

The school set consisted of both Title I and non-Title I schools and were a mix of rural, urban, and suburban sites. The demographics of the student populations varied across the school site.

Demographic Table 3. School Context- Geographic

Ecological Setting	Schools	Teachers	Lessons
Rural	2	4	7
Sub-Urban	8	17	27
Urban	4	7	12
Total	14	28	46

CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH STUDY DESIGN

This study uses qualitative research methods associated with the analytical processes of grounded theory methods. I chose to borrow aspects of these qualitative research methods, and situate this analysis within broader contexts, as a counterweight to positivistic research that is too stringently tied to the idea of neutrality and objectivity. It is often that research developed from positivist orientations claims strict objectivity and neutrality as the harbingers of validity and reliability, but these methods are explicitly intent on removing externalities and contextual variables in the process of knowledge construction. From a positivist perspective, research is conducted as an ontological action to cook out contextual factors in order to isolate a singular unit of life under study and develop scientific truths about them. In paradoxical fashion, scientists then argue that the decontextualized truth is meant to be extrapolated and universally re-applied across contexts, regardless of origin and regardless of the location of application, because these factors have been controlled for within the research design. In my set-up, I provided ethical reasoning and community reciprocity, in the form of a confrontation with historically questionable contexts that inform teachers' decisions and a data set that has multiple uses that include supporting the communities in which the research was conducted and provided open access to research materials.

To generate meaning of teachers' decisions, I needed a manageable, systematic way describe the series of interpretations, and subsequently make sense of large amounts of interview transcripts, and from an explicitly subjective position (Cho & Lee, 2014). I analyze the transcripts from teachers' interviews with a common series of qualitative analysis processes based on grounded theory analytical processes—some of the most common methods for conducting a qualitative analysis, providing a useful way for exploring more complex theoretical

TEACHERS DECISIONS

and critical questions (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008). I chose to borrow from grounded theory analytical methods because I did not want to immediately place an explicitly critical perspective on teachers' work without having an opportunity to develop and describe conceptual understanding from open and emergent perspectives (Charmaz, 2006; Cho & Lee, 2014). When brought together, I feel as if the points, contexts, and processes are deep enough to respect teachers' work, voice, and professional knowledge, as well as provide the opportunity to talk in nuanced ways about critical issues, and particularly within teaching practice. In this chapter, I continued my efforts towards transparency by explaining my reasons, processes, and outputs in the analytical process to make sense of teachers' decisions. This process was complex and required significant coding, re-coding, constant comparison of the data, and analytical memos. These processes positioned the research to make sense of teachers' decisions in relationship to their everyday work, but also provided an opportunity to look at their decisions in relationship to the foundations of standardized and contextualized approaches to pedagogy located within the education reform movement.

An Opportunity for Critical Qualitative Research

The development of understanding about social phenomena is problematic. Various research methods along with their interpretations and conclusions, have long been insufficient (and, at times, oppressive) in developing meaningful and useful knowledge constructions in support of vulnerable populations (Kaomea, 2016; Lather, 2004; Shields, 2012). Therefore, I ask my questions in relationship to a contextual framework that acknowledges influences on teachers' work with my critical perspective at the forefront (Leonardo, 2003). Given my background knowledge and experiences, it was important that I both acknowledged my bias and tried to remain open to the wide variety of foundations that exist in teachers' work.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

My recording and interpretation of this world is faced with a seemingly infinite amount of historical, political, psychological, social, economic, and ecological variables that are present in any given social setting. As such, I cannot simply develop constructions of truth akin to scientific processes conducted with accurate tools of measurement that can be repeated within experimental, sterilized, and controlled laboratory settings. I believe that real world cannot be reduced to universal truths or a naive oversimplification of complex social processes which are inherently temporal and contextual. I hope that my ethical entry, treatment of literature, and the transparency of my descriptions of contexts, collections procedures, and methods of analysis help to alleviate some of the pressures associated with the history of research, as well as some of the questions about who I am and what I am trying to do in this work.

With that said, I do use logic and numerical frequencies help me make sense of the data. What separates this work from a positivist construction is that I do not claim to construct any sort of tautology why teachers make decisions or grand narrative to explain teachers' decisions. Rather, I am ethically and transparently putting together qualitative data in order to create an opportunity to ask critical questions that "make previously repressed features of the social world visible and seek to challenge the hegemonic status quo" (Kaomea, 2016, p. 2).

Why Grounded Theory Works for This Study

For this qualitative research, I made sense of teachers' decisions by initially using grounded theory methods of analysis and then by connecting my interpretations of their work to the broader contexts which inform them. Inductive and comparative methods found in grounded theory are among the most popular qualitative methods for examining the thoughts and actions of practitioners in field settings (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008; Merriam, 2009). This work is linked to concepts of grounded theory because the topic emerged from my professional experiences in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

contexts that relate to where the research was set (Charmaz, 2014). I actively practice in the discipline, and I have a general understanding of the participants, their professional contexts, and the processes in which they engage in relation to the inquiry. Also, I teachers' words about their professional world. Therefore, my interpretations are located near the naturalistic language and concepts that teachers' use to describe their own practice (Charmaz, 2006).

The analysis borrows coding procedures from grounded theory methods. I chose grounded theory for multiple reasons, including how grounded theory that it: (a) was developed in opposition to quantitative descriptions of social phenomena; (b) sought devices and procedures that could sufficiently develop conceptual understanding of complex social realities; (c) tries to stay close to the language and context of the participants; (d) was designed around heuristic devices, including various iterative and memo actions, for developing inductive reasoning; and (e) results in a more nuanced description and conceptual understanding of teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction, one that can be used to explore more deductive theoretical, critical and contextual questions that lead to deeper meanings. Grounded procedures allowed for an appreciation of the banalities of teacher' work as well as the complexities and anomalies.

Opposing Positivist Research

Originally, grounded theory researchers Glaser and Strauss (1967) saw grounded theory as a way to develop inductive descriptions about social phenomena from social contexts rather than applying hypothetical, deductive, objectivist reasoning methods to test the individual's experiences in social contexts against previously engineered research. Early constructivist grounded theorists wanted to be detailed and transparent with their methods in order to counter conservative critiques of their work as unscientific or lacking rigor (Charmaz, 2006). In many

TEACHERS DECISIONS

ways, early examples of grounded theory broke through a previously impervious wall of experimental, positivistic, and quantitative research held up by most researchers as a dominant standard to achieve truth, knowledge, and understanding about the world (Charmaz, 2006). By doing so, it challenged dominant research ideals about what was considered legitimate and truthful knowledge (Charmaz, 2006).

Managing Methodological Problems

Grounded theory is as much a review of social process as much as it is a social process of knowledge construction (Gibbs, 2008; Charmaz, 2006, 2014). Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggest that grounded theory evolved to address certain methodological problems and is useful for studies that focus on: (a) knowledge that emerges directly from field sites, (b) inquiries that develop understanding from social actions and processes, (c) being open to the interpretive possibility and temporality of human actions, and (d) seeking to identify the reasons and uncover contextual nuance behind social actions.

Keeping the Interpretations Grounded

I chose grounded theory because I wanted to remain as open as possible to what teachers were talking about (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory is a particularly useful place to begin qualitative research, as it attempts to keep the interpretations closely linked to the language and meanings of the participants (Charmaz, 1996, 2006). Grounded theory methods are a part of a qualitative research procedures designed to help researchers make sense of social processes derived from individual experiences in social contexts. (Charmaz, 2006; Gibbs, 2008). For me, grounded theory coding strategies are an opportunity to generate meaning and understanding from an exploration of social processes in context. As such, this research seeks the account of “actual instances” and real-life “particulars” of the classroom in the “in vivo” language of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers and how they think about their own actions (Wertz, et. al., 2011). Grounded theory methods of qualitative research are particularly useful and meaningful in practitioner based fields such as education (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Merriam, 2009). In this way, grounded theory methods can help researchers to address dominant perspectives by valuing the perspective and day-to-day concerns of the participant (Leonardo, 2003).

Engaging in heuristic and inductive sense-making

I wanted to keep the topic broad with regards to teachers' decisions (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory methods allow for building inductive understanding of social phenomena (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Gibbs, 2008; Merriam, 2009). Early coding processes are suggested to be heuristic devices— an opportunity to become familiar with naturalistic aspects of a topic prior to theoretical analysis (Charmaz, 2006; Gibbs, 2008). Grounded theory and its procedures are designed to give the researcher an opportunity to look at the field texts, or data, that they have collected in new and emergent ways. While some research suggests that teachers are influenced by their experiences and beliefs, as well as external forces, or in relationship to contexts, the use of grounded theory methods is appropriate because no singular theory explained how teachers in culturally diverse and economically marginalized contexts engage in decision-making within curriculum and instruction (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Gibbs, 2008; Merriam, 2009).

More Contextually-based Interpretations

Grounded theory approaches help maintain flexibility as an inquiry generates knowledge about a particular area of interest in a particular context (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Strauss & Corbin, 1994), and allow for the space to make sense of relationships between individual and larger social processes (Charmaz, 1996, 2006, 2008). Interactionists and social constructivists

TEACHERS DECISIONS

believe systems of culture consist of people's actions within everyday life and are both complex with human agency and also influenced by powerful maxims (Charmaz, 2014). This is particularly the case of professional actions in highly structured state institutions, such as teachers' work in public schools. That said, given the complexity of human actions, constructivists are not looking for universalist explanations to behaviors and actions. Rather, they are trying to understand human actions within the connections that exists between the everyday and the broader social contexts. As Charmaz (2006) notes, "researchers can adopt and adapt them to conduct diverse studies" (p. 9). Similarly, grounded theory methods can be used as a complement to other qualitative procedures (Charmaz, 2006).

I used the development of the grounded conceptual understanding as an opportunity to ask more theoretical, critical and contextual questions of the texts (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008; Saldana, 2009; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). These interpretations are then in such a place where additional analytics can be applied in order to construct additional meaning (Charmaz, 2006). Constructivist grounded theory notes that interpretations of human actions and social processes can reveal evidence of social ideas and structures (Charmaz, 2014). This perspective relies on being able to interpret and describe grounded social actions and language, then drawing analytical conclusions representative or containing elements of boarder social ideas and structures. Grounded theory set the stage for the further theoretical and critical questions to emerge where the research can follow leads, focus on some of the more interesting questions pertinent to the setting and remain as flexible as the inquiry evolved (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008).

Overview of Methods Borrowed from Grounded Theory Processes

The qualitative methods I borrowed from grounded theory value teachers work. The interpretations thereof acknowledge the balance between teachers' professional autonomy and thinking and the social influences on teachers' work, but it also noted my influence, bias, and limitations as the researcher in the process. Generally speaking, grounded theory methods include: (a) simultaneous involvement in text collection and comparative analysis; (b) concepts and themes related to the text become substantive analytical units (not necessarily the text itself); (c) initially, constructing knowledge from texts (not from logically deduced hypotheses); (d) using a constant comparisons and analysis during text collection; (e) using memo-writing to explain procedures, identify bias, elaborate categories, specify their properties, define relationships between categories, and identify gaps in thinking; (f) sampling of texts aimed toward a more complete and nuanced construction of what is happening and how it is happening, not for population representativeness; (g) connecting the finding to the literature review after developing an explanatory frame; and, (h) situating the research and processes within broader structural and contextual conditions (Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 2009; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Gibbs, 2008; Zeprun, 2014). Overall though, grounded theory processes are generally designed to be adapted and adopted, and provide flexible analytic processes that result in a socially constructed interpretation from the teachers' interviews (Charmaz, 2014; Gibbs, 2008; Saldana, 2009; Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

Research Study Design

This inquiry generates insight from interviews with teacher participants from the larger HETS study. The research process analyzes the teacher interviews vis-a-vis the concepts, constructs, and contexts that inform them (Charmaz, 2014; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Merriam,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

2009; Wertz et al., 2011). As I was looking for an opportunity to use an ethical and distinct nuanced way to generate understanding, I need to begin with my own initial starting, critical, foundational, and standings points (Charmaz, 2014). I worked through these processes for critical, transparent, and ethical reasons, and in tried try to be clear about this in order to address or expose limitations of the methods and to be clear of what I did as opposed to what I did not do (Evans & Davies, 2014; Neill, 2006). Together, these meaningful points are the contextual framework that provided purpose and meaning to this study and its conclusions.

I produced interpretations through a series of procedural stages, processes, and steps, resulting in interpretative outputs for further analysis. Throughout the stages, I stayed close to the original language that teachers' use in order to value these practical perspectives as contributing to the significance of the inquiry and discussion. I needed appropriate, rigorous, and meaningful ways to think about, conceptualize, and construct critical interpretations of their interviews (Charmaz, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Therefore, I employed a mixture of inductive, deductive, theoretical, reflexive, and abductive reasoning to develop nuanced meaning and value from the research.

Research Questions

These questions represent the inquiries I used as a basis for the development of interpretations of teachers' decisions. The questions are:

1. What are teachers' reasons for their decisions on curriculum and instruction across the various public school contexts and how can we make conceptual sense of them given a multitude of influences on their work?
2. In what ways are teachers' decisions associated with the foundations of standardized and contextualized pedagogical frameworks?

TEACHERS DECISIONS

3. Does the appearance of standardized and contextualized language in teachers' decisions differ among Title I, Non-Title I, and marginalized contexts?
4. What critical realizations, conclusions, and implications can be made from the analytical interpretations?

Data Collection: Settings and Participants

The data set included 92 interviews from 46 lessons with 28 teachers in 14 different public schools. The interviews were focused on the curriculum and instruction that teachers used for their lessons. The interview questions asked focused on teachers to describing their reasoning behind decisions on curriculum and instruction for classroom lessons. The language in the field texts (described later in this chapter) was based on their professional perspectives and in their professional classroom setting. The lessons came from a range of grade levels, both elementary and high school, and subject areas, including a majority in core subjects of math and English Language Arts (ELA). For the most part, teachers were highly educated and experienced. The schools were located in non-Title I and Title I schools, with some Title I schools referred to as marginalized educational contexts (based on the number of students who receive Free and Reduced Lunch (FRL) and the percentages of students in these schools who come from underrepresented cultural and ethnic groups). Schools in the study represent a varied amount of cultural diversity, socioeconomic class, and ecological contexts.

Description of Teacher Participants

The teachers who participated in the study were classroom teachers in Hawai'i public and public charter schools. The teachers worked in both Title I and non-Title I schools. The teachers represented a range demographic splits including ethnicity, subject area, age, years living in Hawai'i, years of experience, and levels of educational attainment, as well as additional degrees

TEACHERS DECISIONS

and certifications. Demographics of teacher-participants can be viewed in *Appendix One: Teacher and School Contexts, tables 1-8*.

Teachers in Non-Title I, Title I & Marginalized Schools

Of the 28 teachers who participated in the study, 14 came from non-Title I schools and 14 came from Title I schools. Of that, 11 of the Title I school teachers were working in marginalized contexts. These school contexts were designated as marginalized based on their Free and Reduced Lunch (FRL) over 60% and underrepresented groups over 60%.

Demographic Table 2. School Context- Socioeconomic

School Setting	Schools	Teachers	Lessons	Interviews
Non-Title I	5	14	22	44
Title I schools	9	14	24	48
Title I - Over 40% FRL	2	3	5	10
Title I - Over 60% FRL (MARG) and over 60% underrepresented groups	7	11	19	38

Interviews were conducted in five Non-Title I schools. 14 teachers were interviewed in the Non-Title I context. These teachers contributed a total of 44 of 92 interviews. 36 of these teacher interviews came from public schools in the Title I context, while eight came from the Non-Title I public charter context. Interviews were conducted in nine Title I schools, seven of which were designated as marginalized. Title I teachers contributed a total of 48 of 92 total interviews.

Teacher Demographics: Ethnicity

All teachers self-identified with their cultural backgrounds. The majority of teachers who participated in this study identified as coming from White and Japanese cultural backgrounds. The next largest group was from identified as mixed ethnicity, and primarily mixed Asian. The

TEACHERS DECISIONS

remainder of the teacher participants identified as Filipino, African-American, Chinese, Hispanic, and Part-Hawaiian. 18 of 46 lessons interviews were conducted with White teachers. 12 of 46 lessons interviews conducted with teachers who identify with Japanese cultural backgrounds. The remainder of the lessons came from teachers who identified as mixed Ethnicity-Asian (5), Filipino (4), African-American (2), Chinese (2), Hispanic (2), and Part-Hawaiian (2). Additionally, the majority of lessons in the Title I context came from White (11) and Japanese (5) teachers. While the other lessons in the Title I context came from teachers with the following backgrounds, Filipino (4), Mixed-Asian (4), and African-American (2).

Demographic Table 4. Teacher Participant- Self-Identified Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
African-American	1	2	2
Chinese	1	2	0
Filipino	2	4	4
Hispanic	1	2	0
Japanese	6	12	5
Mixed-Asian	4	5	4
Part-Hawaiian	1	1	0
White-American	12	18	11
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Generally, speaking we can see similarities between the sample set and the distribution of ethnicities across all teachers in the HIDEOE. In particular, it is noted that a majority of teachers are White and Japanese. This demographic in teachers is disproportional to the students from these ethnic groups, and especially when considering the disproportionality between teachers

TEACHERS DECISIONS

from underrepresented groups, like Native Hawaiian and Filipino (approximately 15%), and students from these groups (nearly 50%).

Demographic Table 5. Teacher-Student Demographic Comparison HIDOE, 2014-2015

Ethnicity	Students	Teachers
African-American	2.8%	0.7%
Caucasian	17%	24.1%
Chinese	3.1%	3.6%
Filipino	22.1%	6.4%
Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian	26%	9.9%
Hispanic	3.6%	1.3%
Japanese	9.1%	25.3%
Korean	1.1%	1.0%
Micronesian	4.2%	NA
Native American	0.6%	0.0%
Samoan	3.4%	0.5%
Other	6.9%	26.7%
<i>Total</i>	<i>99.9%</i>	<i>99.5%</i>

Teacher ethnicities in the sample set were generally representative of the HIDOE teacher demographics as whole.

Teacher in Various Grade Levels

Of the 28 teachers who participated in the study, 14 came from elementary school classrooms and 14 came from middle and high school classrooms.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 6. Teacher Participant- Grade level

Grade Level	Teachers	Lessons	Title I - lessons
Total Elementary	14	24	16
Lower Elementary (K-3)	8	14	11
Upper Elementary (4-6)	6	10	5
Total Middle and High	14	22	8
Middle School (7-8)	8	12	0
High School (9-12)	6	10	8
<i>Totals</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

The teachers who participated in the study taught a number of grade levels. Eight teachers were teaching lower elementary (kindergarten - 3rd grade) with a total of 14 lessons, 11 of which were conducted in Title I schools. Six teachers were teaching upper elementary (4th-6th grades) for a total of ten lessons, five of which came from Title I settings. Eight teachers were working in Middle school classroom (7th and 8th grades) for a total of 12 lessons, none of which came from Title I schools. Finally, six teachers were teaching high school grade levels (9th-12th) for a total of 10 lessons, eight of which came from Title I schools.

Teachers in Various Subject Areas

Teachers who participated in the study largely taught in Common Core subject areas. Of the lesson-interviews 56 of 92 came from Common Core subjects, while 32 of 92 interviews were in sciences and social studies.

Demographic Table 7. School Context- Subject Areas and Grade Levels

Subject	Lessons - subject	Lessons - Title I
<i>Common Core Subjects</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>18</i>
Math-Elementary	5	4
Math- Middle and High School	6	3
ELA-Elementary	11	8
ELA-Middle and High School	6	3
<i>General Subjects</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>6</i>
Science-Elementary	6	4
Science- Middle and High School	4	0
SS-Elementary	0	0
Social Studies- Middle and High School	6	2
<i>Other (P4c)</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Total</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Teachers who participated in the study taught a range of subject areas, and all but two lessons were in Common Core and universal curriculum subject areas of ELA and math and general subjects of science, and social studies. Of the 28 total lessons came from Common Core State Standards subject areas, 18 came from interviews with teachers working in Title I schools. This includes 11 total lessons in math, five from elementary and six from high school with seven of these math lessons coming from the Title I educational context. Seventeen of the lessons

TEACHERS DECISIONS

interviews were focused on ELA, 11 from elementary schools and six from high schools with eleven of the 17 lessons in the Title I setting.

16 lessons were focused on the general subject areas of science (10) and social studies (six), with six of the lessons coming from the Title I context (four sciences and two social studies). Six of the 10 science lessons were from the elementary context and all six of the social studies lessons were from the high school classroom. The two lessons that were not in core or general subject areas focused on a particular instructional methodology called, “Philosophy for Children” (P4C). Both of these lessons were in elementary classrooms, and neither of them were in the Title I context.

Teachers’ Educational Background

Across the HIDOE, teachers who have advanced degrees are about 37% of the workforce, while about 96% were fully-licensed (HIDOE, 2015). Of the teachers who participated in the interviews, all were fully licensed teachers and all were highly-qualified as having a license in their content area.

Demographic Table 8. Teacher Participant- Highest Degrees and Certification

Highest Degree	Teachers	Title I-teachers
Bachelor’s	13	8
Master’s	14	6
PhD	1	0
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>14</i>
Nationally Certified	6	3

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Of the teachers interviewed for this study, 13 or just under 50%, possessed a bachelor's degree. Of those, eight worked in Title I schools. 14 of the teachers interviewed for this study (of 28 total) completed a Master's degree as their highest level of education, six of those worked in Title I contexts. One the teachers in the study received their PhD and this teacher did not teach in the Title I context. Additionally, six of the teachers in the data set have National Board Certification (NBC), three of whom work were working in the Title I context.

Teachers with Years of Experience

Teachers who participated in the study had a range of experience teaching. A majority of teachers in the study (20 of 28) had been teaching for more than six years, while over 1/3rd had more than 11 years of experience.

Demographic Table 9. Teacher Participant- Years Teaching

Years	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
1-3	2	4	0
4-5	6	11	6
6-10	9	15	8
11-20	7	9	6
21+	4	7	4
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Of the newest teachers in the study, none of these teachers were working in Title I schools. Also, more than half of all lessons in each of the demographics of teachers experience were in Title I contexts.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Teachers with Years in Living in Hawai‘i

The amount of time that teachers live in Hawai‘i is important in understanding how much they might know about the place and how much of their knowledge and worldview may be connected to the people, cultures, social issues, and the land. Teachers in the study had been living in Hawai‘i for a range of different lengths of time. Some had only been in Hawai‘i for less than 10 years, while many had been here from more than 10 years.

Demographic Table 10. Teacher Participant- Years Living in Hawai‘i

Years	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
1-2	1	2	2
3-5	5	8	5
6-10	2	4	0
11-20	5	7	5
21+	5	9	4
Born and Raised	10	16	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Of the teachers in the study, 20 of the 28 teachers had been living in Hawai‘i for over 11 years, and more than 1/3rd were born and raised. It’s important to note that more than half of the teachers who participated had lived in Hawai‘i for more than 21 years.

Data Collection: Interviews as Field Texts

The development of field texts is in order to create an opportunity to develop critical understandings which are eventually shared with teachers for reflexive analysis. My dissertation

TEACHERS DECISIONS

research used transcripts of teachers' interviews on curriculum and instruction. I used 92 interviews that were conducted as pre-interviews taking place prior to teachers' curriculum and instruction in classroom lessons. The interviews focused on a variety of aspects of curriculum and instruction including decisions, learning outcomes, assessment, classroom management, student engagement, and relevance of curriculum and instruction to students lives. Interviews were particularly useful in providing personal accounts of experiences and perspectives on the social processes of teachers. The language generated from interviews was that of participants and therefore it contains valuable meaning revealed through explanations, descriptions, and perceptions of participant's reality (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003). I did not immediately attempt to observe and record social phenomena, but rather wanted to understand teacher decision-making through the ideas and thoughts of teachers (Legard et al., 2003). I attempted to build a deeper description and more nuanced critical discussion of teacher's day-to-day professional processes in a naturalistic setting.

I used semi-structured interviews. I chose to focus on why the teachers chose to teach the particular lesson, as well as how they perceived that lesson to be meaningful to their students' lives. Teacher's answers to these questions created will stand as the texts that I used to explore associations between their beliefs and neoliberal and divergent pedagogies. In order to collect teacher responses, I have asked the following questions:

1. Teacher Instructional Interview Question: *Why did you choose to teach this lesson?*
2. Teacher Curriculum Interview Question: *Why did you choose these curriculum materials for this lesson?*

Field texts were derived from structured, open-ended teacher interviews. These questions are clearly focused on eliciting teachers' descriptive language about their decisions and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

perceptions of purposeful curriculum and instruction decisions that they have made, and how these decisions were relevant and meaningful with regards to the lived context of the student. Interviews were constructed using standardized and systematic procedures with the same open-ended questions asked of all participants, in all interviews, and in the same order. The questions focused on teacher's curriculum and instruction, and specifically, why they chose and how they perceived their curriculum and instruction as relevant to student's lives. The interview responses contained teacher's individual descriptions of their decisions and perceptions of curriculum and instruction for a singular lesson. All of the interviews were videotaped and transcribed. I used NVIVO software in the analysis.

Operationalizing the Terms and Processes in this Inquiry

The use of grounded theory analytic techniques is multi-faceted and complex. Constructing an analysis using methods from grounded theory requires a specific set of consistent language to talk about the stages, processes, steps, and interpretations. The technical and puzzle-like nature of the inquiry requires the language to be consistent in both form and function. For this reason, I have included a guide to operational terms linked to each of the stages as outlined in the analytical stages. These terms are necessary to understand how I defined the terms, as well as some of the nuance given to general terms. A glossary of terms is located in *Appendix Two: Analytical Processes*.

The Stages of Analytical Process

I analyzed the data in five stages. The following are a general explanation of these processes:

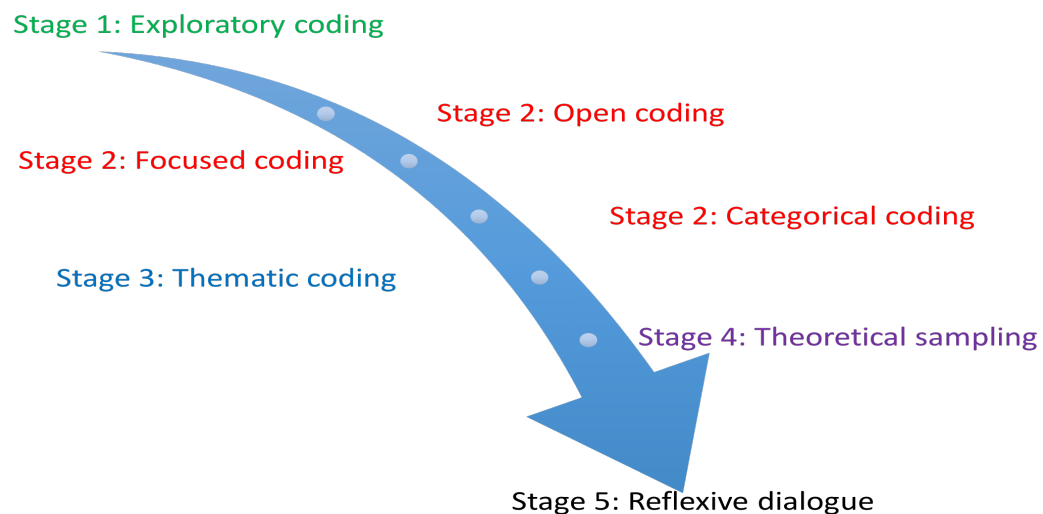
- **Stage 1, Exploratory:** I used this stage to explore the reasons that teachers gave for choosing curriculum and instruction. I did so in order to gain general conceptual

TEACHERS DECISIONS

understanding of their decisions and to explore general characteristics of representation across the various interviews, lessons, subjects, and contexts.

- **Stage 2**, Generative: I used this stage to generate descriptive terms for teachers' decisions. I used *in vivo* codes for this process and constant comparison of the codes to drive conceptual thinking about teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction.
- **Stage 3**, Thematic: At this stage, I used the grounded, *in vivo* interpretations to develop a thematic model that represented teachers' decision-making in relation to the range of influences on their work. This thematic model provided an opportunity to explore some theoretical and critical questions about the grounded interpretations of teachers' decisions.
- **Stage 4**, Theoretical and Critical: This stage was an opportunity to ask some theoretical questions of teachers' decisions using theoretical frameworks developed from the literature around standardized and contextualized pedagogies linked to education reform. Additionally, I critically considered how aspects of standardization and contextualization looked among the different school contexts in the research setting.
- **Stage 5**, Reflexive: I used this stage to engage in a dialogue with a select group of teacher participants. I wanted to know how these teachers viewed my interpretations of their work. I wanted to know what these teachers thought were the reasons why the evidence of standardized and contextualized pedagogies might have looked the way it did. Teachers' interpretations of the analysis decisions provided me with a critical point and implications for learning, practice, research, and the preparation of future teachers.

Analytical Process Figure 1. The Stages of Analytical Process



Together, these processes provide an opportunity to describe the on the ground nature of teachers' decisions in an effort to create space to discuss more nuanced understanding of the problems in relationship to the contextual framework. These explorations lead to an opportunity to discuss the appearance of contextualized pedagogies within teachers' decisions in the diverse and marginalized educational context. I have outlined the stages and include a number of key tables of both process and interpretative data. The stages for each of the analytical moves are as follows, and each process is described in terms of the steps, explained in terms of its purpose, and organized towards the general interpretive outputs of each of the processes.

Coding through the Stages of the Analytic Process

In grounded theory, coding is the process of finding things out about the texts and beginning to discuss their meanings (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Gibbs, 2008). Coding is about assigning summative and salient value to groups of text (Saldana, 2009), through which I defined and described my interpretations of participants' explanations about their

TEACHERS DECISIONS

decisions (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Gibbs, 2008). As such, I am moving past the actual text and beginning to think analytically about its meaning in relationship to my professional understanding and the context in which it was produced (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Gibbs, 2008). With that said, my coding process moved past specific actions and thoughts in context, and more accurately described what they are and the context in which they occurred. At this point, I was used the various stages of coding as a heuristic device to understand more about the data rather than to begin to attribute data to some larger theoretical constructs.

These processes get to the point of exploring such as, “What is happening here?”, “What are the texts trying to tell us?” and “What stories are emerging from the texts?” (Charmaz, 2014). The procedures take one through a series of “systematic yet flexible” story and construct building exercises immersed in an exploration of the information immediately located in the field texts (Charmaz, 2006). The loosely prescribed processes help the research to discern what is happening in the record of people's thoughts, actions, and experiences in a given social context. The results of these processes were meaningful conceptual codes to describe the data. Grounded theory analytics produces what I call codes; which are then constantly compared against one another in order to arrive at core analytic categories that can help to generate meaningful and abstract theory about ways to understand interpretations of teachers’ decisions and perceptions (Charmaz, 2006).

Memo Writing as an Analytical Process

At each stage of coding, I used the development of story-memos to describe the process and thinking I used to make sense of the field texts. Memo writing, in this way, is the nuts and bolts of thinking that goes into the coding process. If coding is the production of themes and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

descriptions, memos is the cognitive mess that drove you to these particular interpretations and many grounded theorists note that memo writing is the foundational cognitive element in generating knowledge from field texts (Charmaz, 2014). Memos helped shed light on my ideas as they occurred and in relation to the data (Glaser, 1998). Memos capture the thinking that goes into the interpretation process. The act of naming actions and thoughts with select words is sometimes not enough to accurately describe the concept at the foundation of a theme. Memo writing and story building guided thinking and description at each of the stages and kept me honest about my own perspectives that I brought to the work. I derived memos at each of the stages open, line-by-line, focused, and focused coding. These memos helped lead to the development of themes which I organize into core categories, describing how these categories were formed and the contents of each. As a whole, these interpretations became the research materials from which the theoretical and critical claims and conclusions are built.

My Analytic Processes in Stages, Steps and Outputs

In this section, I explain the coding processes and steps, provide a reason for why I conducted the processes, and describe the outputs. Tables associated with these processes and interpretations can be found in the *Appendix 3. Analytical Processes*. I include tables with general description of the process, what it is focused on, and what the outputs can be found. For the exploratory and generative stages, I do not include the data in the text, though it is available in the appendices. Transparency is the important reason for explaining this section in detail. Also, the stage three, four and five provide the meaningful results of these processes. The results (leading to categorical, thematic, theoretical, and critical conceptualizations) of teachers' decisions are presented in following chapter.

Analytical Stage 1: Exploratory Coding

TEACHERS DECISIONS

First, I began working with all 92 transcripts to generate some understanding of the world I was entering. While I am familiar with teaching as a process, I needed to become familiar with how these particular 28 teachers were talking about their decisions. I also needed to explore the data to do preliminary analysis that would inform my decisions for the rest of the analytical process. I looked at the transcripts across all contexts and cases, but I also separated out the contexts, lessons, and individual interviews to ensure that data was representative of teachers' decisions as a whole and that no glaring gaps existed in the data within or among contexts, lessons, or interviews.

Additionally, I used exploratory coding to address my own bias in the interpretations. I brought my perspectives, goals, and frameworks to this work, and they included biases. I needed to confront these and be transparent about them up front. Primarily, the biases I needed to expose were focused on what I perceived to be significant influence of accountability reforms in teachers' work. The processes, steps, and outputs for this stage can be seen in *Analytical Process Table Analytical Process 1*.

Analytical Process Table 1. Exploratory Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
1	Exploratory	Analytical Process 1a.	Across all transcripts	Exploratory-holistic	Analytical Output 1 & 2.
			Transcripts within context and within Curriculum and instruction	Exploratory-in context	Analytical Output 3-7.
			Exploratory codes across contexts	Exploratory-for focus	Analytical Output 8 & 9.

Exploratory Coding Steps. This was an opportunity to understand the breadth and depth of all 92 interviews from all 46 lessons, from all 28 teachers, and in all 14 schools. This process produced in holistic readings of the text, meaning that specific segments and lines, consisting of specific language were NOT used to generate these initial conceptual understandings of the data. I began by using a rudimentary and everyday reading of the texts as a beginning exploratory process as opposed to close reading or immediate line-by-line coding. This helped me to begin to identify certain concepts that appeared central to construct understanding. As Charmaz (2006) notes, this is about asking questions of what is the language of participants trying to say, what do the stories tell us, and from whose perspective? This is a coding process used simply to become familiar with the entirety of the transcripts.

Reasons for exploratory coding. In this basic introduction, I tried to get a feeling about what some of the concepts might be in preparation for coding (Saldana, 2009). The exploratory conceptual development and coding was an opportunity to check the total number of codes generated within each of the contexts, within the lessons, and within curriculum and instruction. I recognized that codes were distributed across the various transcripts, meaning no interviews had no reasons, and this ensured that the data was substantial, valuable, and nuanced. I also came to the realization that I had enough and similar data for looking across the contexts and across curriculum and instruction. Charmaz (2014) also suggests that initial readings situated within a constructivist frame can help to address issues of bias in the research process. As Charmaz (2006) notes, students will often “rely on earlier concepts and invoke them before they begin coding to make their qualitative research legitimate.” She argues that memos from this early, reflexive work can identify preconceived notions of the phenomena thereby helping to open up thinking about more accurately the participant’s responses and the thematic codes which

TEACHERS DECISIONS

are applied. For me, this was letting go of my preconception that all teachers' decisions and perceptions were standardized. With both sets of codes, I was able to begin to think about my bias towards my critical lens that I later checked against the frequencies of the open codes.

Exploratory Output. In this set of transcripts, I created two sets of exploratory codes, one set of 43 exploratory codes in holistic readings of all the transcripts together at first, then separated by curriculum and instruction, and finally, a set of 113 exploratory codes generated within curriculum and instruction and within contexts. I generated approximately 3-4 codes from each interview and about 6-8 codes were generated in each lesson for curriculum and instruction. Together, each context generated between 20-25 codes across curriculum and instruction. I combined 113 total codes into 24 focused codes as an opportunity to practice the method of constant comparison. The frequencies of all codes were noted, as well as some of the dimensions, and those eight codes with the highest frequency were identified. Decisions were made from these frequencies and general concepts to conduct the study, at least at first, across all contexts and across curriculum and instruction. Together, the codes and their story provided a general understanding of the data set. The exploratory coding helped me to begin to examine my own assumptions about the influence of accountability reforms in teachers work. The outputs of the exploratory analysis and codes can be seen in *Appendix Three: Analytical Output Table 1-9*.

Analytical Stage 2: Generative and Descriptive Analytical Processes

The generative and descriptive processes in this research were inductive. Once I had checked for issues of representation and bias, I read the texts with an open mind set. I looked carefully at lines of text for their conceptual meaning. I developed over 300+ unique codes. These codes were combined in a series of coding processes, including: open coding, focused/dimensional coding, and a categorical coding. Each relies in part to the constant

TEACHERS DECISIONS

comparison of the codes. As I focused on the codes, they provided the baseline understanding of the concepts at the foundation of teachers' decisions. I was able to gather information on a more nuanced description, as well as the frequencies of teachers' decisions across all the school contexts, grade levels, and subject areas. More detailed information on the processes, steps, reasons and general outputs for this stage can be seen in *Analytical Process 2., 2a., 2b., & 2c.*

Analytical Process Table 2. Descriptive Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
2	Descriptive	Analytical Process 2a.	Across all transcripts	Unique codes	NA
			Unique codes across contexts	Open codes	Analytical Output 10.
		Analytical Process 2b.	Open codes across contexts	Focused-dimensions	Analytical Output 11 & 12
		Analytical Process 2c.	Dimensional and focused	Categories-initial	Analytical Output 13.
			Initial categories	Categories-final	Analytical Interpretations 1-14.

Open coding Steps. All open codes were generated by looking at specific segments and lines of the text, consisting of specific language. Open coding was done *in vivo*, or in a way that kept the language used in building the codes as close to the language and concepts of teachers in the study. Open codes were created by reading first within curriculum and second across instruction. Then, I placed open codes from across contexts into their individual lesson cases by grade and subject, separated by curriculum and instruction, and by the contexts. The processes

TEACHERS DECISIONS

for open coding can be viewed in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 2 & 2a*.

Reasons for open coding. The main reason for open coding was to hone in on the important aspects and implicit meanings of the data. It focuses on the language that teachers used in their classroom and for decisions on curriculum and instruction. I remained open to what teachers said. This was the beginning of the formal interpretive process that became the data from which all other processes were conducted. Also, from early on, I wanted to make sure that the data was representative across the cases and contexts, and that one interview was not dominating a category of codes.

Output for open coding. 324 open codes were generated across curriculum and instruction and across contexts. The results of open coding can be seen in *Appendix Three: Analytical Output table 10*.

Focused and dimensional coding steps. In the second stage, I organized these largely natural, or *in vivo*, codes into 71 dimensions and through constant comparisons made 15 initial categories. The categories needed to be checked for their adequacy, accuracy, and frequency as I began to compare the codes against one another and the categories they were placed in. After much consideration, I “cleaned up” the codes. Open codes from across curriculum and instruction and across contexts were combined based on the sameness of the code. Then, I examined the frequencies of these codes to explore which were among the most regular reasons for teachers’ decisions. Unique codes were examined for their basic language and conceptual similarities to one another. I organized unique codes into larger focused codes with dimensions. Once combined, I checked these unique codes against my memos in exploratory coding. Focused and dimensional codes were examined for their basic language and conceptual similarities. I began to organize the unique and focused codes conceptually. I checked for adequacy the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

language of the unique codes to match the overarching focused codes. These processes and their parts can be viewed in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 2 & 2b*.

Reasons for focused coding. This step was done to become familiar with the significant unique codes in the data set. It helped to create understanding from constantly comparing the codes to other codes and begin to identify themes emerging from the data. Furthermore, I began to ask some analytical questions about the relationships between the cases, evaluate the adequacy of the unique codes. High frequency unique codes will normally have other open codes named in similar or very close fashion. Focused and dimensional codes were named *in vivo* from the group of codes and favoring the most significant or overarching concept. These were the beginning stages of developing nuance and dimensions of similarly coded data. Output for focused coding. The 324 unique codes were generated across curriculum and instruction and across contexts were reduced to 94 open codes. 10 open codes had frequencies more than 10 and three open codes had frequencies of more than 20. 94 open codes were reduced to 71 dimensional codes. The output for focused coding can be viewed in *Appendix Three: Analytical Output 11 & 12*.

Categorical coding Steps. Initially, I compared the dimensions against one another. I combined what appeared to be similar concepts across the dimensions. I noted the frequency of the dimensions and in particular looked at dimensions that lacked nuance or connections to other codes that were generated. Then I moved or added nuance to the categories, and slightly reduced the number of original codes. After “cleaning” the data, I recombined the focused codes and reorganized the dimensions. Finally, I was left with 12 conceptually strong categories which I was founding my interpretations of teachers’ decisions. The processes for conceptual categories can be found in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 2 & 2c*.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Reasons for categorical coding. Categorical coding allows for the creation and solidification of significant conceptual themes across the codes. This helped me to identify which codes had high frequency by low amounts of nuance. I was able to see the emergence of significant categories of codes. I check the accuracy of the open codes by comparing against the data and the newly developed categories. Open codes are sometimes lacking in accurate detail of the dimensions or were doubly coded. Double codes reduce accuracy and non-significant are not adequately representative. These final categories represent the significant and nuanced conceptual organization of teachers' decisions across curriculum and instruction and across contexts.

Output for categorical coding. All of the dimensional codes were initially organized into 15 categorical codes. The frequencies of the 15 categorical codes were noted as can be seen in *Appendix Three: Analytical Output 13*. I made particular note of high frequency codes (more than 20 and more than 30 open codes) and lower frequency codes. I moved 15 dimensional codes to different categories. I nuanced 20 unique codes by naming them differently after going back into the data. I removed 23 codes from the data because they were double coded. Then, I used constant comparison and the new information to combine the 15 original categories into 12 final categories. The 12 categorical codes with 71 nuanced dimensions can be seen in *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations 1-14*. These results are presented in Chapter 9.

Analytical Stage 3: Thematic Modeling

At this point in my research, I began using a mix of practical and theoretical work. I worked with the categories thematic models for how these categories appeared to relate to one another, and in some cases according to mine and other teachers' perspectives. I decided on a model that would most appropriately work to explore critical questions of the data. This model

TEACHERS DECISIONS

included an appreciation for the contextual framework as an opportunity to ask additional questions of the categories and their dimensions. The process, steps, reasons, and general outputs can be viewed in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 3 & 3a*.

Analytical Process Table 3. Thematic Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
3	Thematic	Analytical Process 3a.	Conceptual categories	Modeling-critical	NA
			Conceptual categories	Modeling-practical	Analytical Interpretations 15.
			Conceptual categories	Modeling-frequency	Analytical Interpretations 16.
			Categorical dimensions	Dimensions of model	Analytical Interpretations 17-19.

Thematic modeling steps. Considering the range of influences on teachers' decisions in relationship to the data was the initial step in this process. While initially, I looked at the data from a critical lens and also grounded lenses from the perspective of teachers, I decided on a model that takes into consideration that teachers make decisions with influence from external, internal, and classroom sources. I noted the frequency of the categorical codes in relationship to one another and questioned the data as to what it was trying to say.

Reason for thematic modeling. I needed to reaffirm my theoretical question about what these codes tell us about teachers' decisions. I needed to see the relationships among the categories, and with attention for the dimensions. This supported the representation of the data in

TEACHERS DECISIONS

a conceptual model. Multiple models presented the ideas from multiple perspectives. At this point, I needed a way to talk about and make sense of the data for use in further analysis. The theoretical model based in standardization was not entirely clear or appropriate, though the practical model does consider the theoretical model. The practical model takes into consideration the main aspects of classroom work and teachers' decisions. When I looked at the frequencies of the codes, the accuracy of story became clearer. This included the significance and the dominance of particular themes, categories, and dimensions, as well as their potential relationship to one another.

Output for thematic modeling. I was able to create a practical continuum model that acknowledges the significant aspects of the classroom: administration, teachers, and learning. Teachers' decisions appear dominated by considerations for professional practice and students' learning, and less so by structure. The thematic model, the frequencies of unique codes, and the dimensions of the categories that is represented in Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations 15-19, and presented in the findings Chapter 9.

Analytical Stage 4: Theoretical Questions

The interpretations made to this point have been largely generative, descriptive, conceptual, and thematic. At this point in the process, I change the logic to be more deductive in which I am looking at aspect of the data to develop new theoretical arguments. A further description of the processes, steps, reasons, and outputs of this stage can be found in *Analytical Process 4., 4a. & 4b.*

Analytical Process Table 4. Processes for Analyzing Categories of Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
4	Theoretical and Critical	Analytical Process 4a. & Theoretical 1.	Dimensions of themes	Theoretical-standardized	Analytical Interpretations 20.
		Theoretical 3.	Dimensions of themes	Theoretical-contextualized	Analytical Interpretations 21.
		Analytical Process 4b.	Dimensions of themes-in context	Critical-context	Analytical Interpretations 22-24.
			Dimensions of themes-across contexts	Critical-context	Analytical Interpretations 25.
			Dimensions among themes	Critical-themes	Analytical Interpretations 26.

Theoretical questioning steps. At this stage, I looked at the dimensions of categories organized into the thematic model. I looked at these dimensions for their conceptual relationships to the ideological, theoretical, or practical connections to foundations of standardized and contextualized pedagogies outlined in Chapter 3 and Chapter 5 literature reviews. At first, I pulled out the dimensions of the categories that appeared to contain concepts linked to standardized foundations of pedagogy which is represented in Appendix Five: Theoretical table 1. There was significant number of dimensions associated with standardized pedagogy, so reorganized these dimensions into 4 main critical aspects of standardized pedagogies. The dimensions appeared to generate aspects associated with mandates, standardized skills, assessments and target populations.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In the second step, I looked at dimensions of categories in relationship to the foundations of contextualized pedagogies represented in *Appendix Five: Theoretical table 3*. The contextualized pedagogies I reviewed in the literature were associated with students' culture, socioeconomics, and ecology of the places they live. So, I used these three aspects of contextualized pedagogy to organize the evidence from the dimensions of the categories, as they had been organized into the themes. However, because the term "culture" is quite broad, and most culture based pedagogies define it more specifically in terms of culturally ethnicity, including language, norms, values, and knowledges associated with specific students' cultures, I also created a more general category that represents aspects of culture that might be more general, such as popular culture. These processes are represented in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 4a*.

Reason for theoretical questioning. The critical question is interested in looking at the evidence in the themes to suggest that there are linkages to the standardized and contextualized aspects of pedagogy. This is important because of the influence of reforms in diverse and marginalized contexts, as well as the value of contextual aspects of students' lives in the learning process. Once the dimensions of the categories were identified, it was meaningful to organize them according to aspects of the theoretical foundations. These aspects help to clarify the conceptual relationships between the dimensions and the foundations of standardized and contextualized theoretical frameworks.

Output for theoretical questioning. 20 categorical dimensions were identified for evidence of conceptual relationship to standardized pedagogy. 11 thematic dimensions were identified for their apparent linkages to contextualized pedagogy. I linked four aspects to standardized aspects of pedagogy and four aspects of contextualized pedagogy. These findings

TEACHERS DECISIONS

are represented in *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations 20. & 21.*, and presented in the findings Chapter 9.

Critical questioning steps. Critically speaking, I wanted to go a step further to explore whether or not there appeared to be more or less standardization or contextualization in the primary contexts of the study. These contexts include Title I, non-Title I, and marginalized school contexts. In order to do this, I took the dimensional aspects of standardized and contextualized pedagogies and I went back to the original unique codes in each of the contexts. I was able to identify where in these contexts aspects of standardized and contextualized pedagogies existed. I used numerical frequencies in each of the aspects within each of the frameworks of pedagogy. The processes for critical questioning are represented in *Appendix Two: Analytical Process 4b*.

Reasons for critical questioning. The critical question is interested in looking at the evidence in the themes to suggest that there are differences between contexts when it comes to the linkages between teachers' decisions and the aspects of standardized and contextualized pedagogy. This is important because of the influence of reforms in diverse and marginalized contexts. It might be interesting to know whether certain school contexts appear to be more frequent a base of teachers' decisions.

Output for critical questioning. Within Non-Title I schools, I found 46 unique codes that could be attributed to either standardized or contextualized aspects of pedagogy. In Title I schools, I found 65 unique codes that could be associated with either standardized or contextualized aspects of pedagogy. And, within marginalized contexts, I found 53 unique codes that could be associated with either standardized or contextualized aspects of pedagogy. Within the contexts, the story appeared to be the same. Many more unique codes appeared linked to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

standardized pedagogy. Across the contexts, it was 38, 59, 48, respectively. This is in opposition to contextualized pedagogy which had eight, six, and five, respectively. Across all of the cases, I found 111 unique codes from teachers' decisions associated with either standardized or contextualized aspects of pedagogy. These findings are represented in *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations 21.- 26.*, and presented in the findings Chapter 9.

Analytic Stage 5: Reflexive Processes and Teacher Dialogue

In the final stage, I presented the interpretations from the grounded, theoretical, and critical interpretations to teacher participants who memo their thoughts and discussed the results, nuances, implications, and future possibilities for research and practice. I am interested in what teachers think about my interpretations and claims about these interpretations. So, I chose four teachers who are familiar with diverse and marginalized educational contexts in Hawai'i and we discussed (including memo-writing) my interpretations. I presented my interpretations across curriculum and instruction, my interpretations from looking across curriculum and instruction within certain contexts, and my critical interpretations from both across and within contexts. From this group conversation, I drew up reflexive teacher comments on each of these analytical interpretations presented in the following chapter. Woven together, the inquiry was designed as a constructivist meaning-making conversation, one that values collaborative partnership between researchers and participants for the construction of analytical claims and knowledge conclusions in context (Wertz, et. al., 2011). I want to put the value of teacher voice into my research. Since the field texts that I used originated in the classroom and are a direct result of teachers' willingness to participate, it was ethical and appropriate to do so.

Analytical Process Table 5. Reflexive Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
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TEACHERS DECISIONS

5	Reflexive	Analytical Process 5a.	Categories, themes and dimensions of themes	Categorical, Thematic, and Theoretical Notes	NA
			Dimensions of themes in and across contexts and salient point	Critical Realizations and Pointed Implications	NA

Reflexive Steps for Teacher Participants. Teacher participants arrived for a three-hour working session to explore my interpretations of their decisions and the larger group of interviews. I made sure to re-share the purpose of the inquiry, as it had been just over two years since most had participated in the interviews. I also stated the research questions I was working through, the purpose of the teacher voice, the range of school contexts in the study, some of the demographics of the teachers represented in the study, and my general processes for analysis.

The teacher-participants self-selected into teams of two. I shared some of the relevant terminology of the processes as it related to the work and dialogue engaged in during the data collection and analysis. Teacher-participants were asked to explore tables, some of my analytical interpretations and then reflect on these interpretations via written memos, critical narratives, and pointed notes of implication. At the stages of dialogue, they worked in teams of two to develop their own interpretations of the data. They shared their interpretations among the two teams of two. Then they had discussions centered first on consensus and agreement of the interpretations, and then on points of divergence, and being careful to note any particularly problematic aspects of the interpretations.

Teachers' interpretations of categories and dimensions. In the first step, teachers were given a list of the 12 categories and 12 lists of dimensions. They worked to organize the 12

TEACHERS DECISIONS

categories by their dimensions, and they drafted memos on why they chose particular groupings. After this the two teams shared with one another their interpretations and had a dialogue built around consensus and divergence. Then, I shared my interpretations of the data to seek consensus among the group. Other than various naming conventions that were a little unclear, for example, teachers did not know what *contextualization-shock* was as a dimension, teachers agreed that the dimensions of the various categories have reasonable foundations linking them together.

Teacher-participant modeling and interpretations of my model. The next step was to explore practical and thematic modeling of the categories of their decisions. The task was to organize the 12 categories (with their dimensions) into a thematic model that represents practical relationships among the categories from teachers' perspectives. We took a similar path in the first exercise in the teams shared their models and reasons for organizing. The discussion in this case was around why they choose this model and whether they could conceive of alternate constructions as were presented by the alternate team. We noted divergence of ideas, but eventually came to the conclusion that the models built by the two teams, while different in explanation were equally well-reasoned depending on the lens used. After it was established that multiple models existed that could represent teachers' decisions as interpreted in this study, I presented my thematic continuum, including the dimensions of the categories, after which we engaged in dialogue for divergence and consensus, and consensus was reached.

Exploring theoretical and critical questions of teachers' decisions. At this stage, teachers were given the theoretical frameworks that I had developed which focused on an ideological, theoretical, and practical definitions of both standardized and contextualized pedagogy. Once again, we built consensus around my interpretations of literature to build the

TEACHERS DECISIONS

frameworks, acknowledged their value to a conversation about teaching, and sought out opportunities for divergence. Then, I posed a question to the teachers: Do you think there is more standardization or contextualization of curriculum and instruction in Hawai‘i schools? We had a brief conversation that suggested all teachers felt that there would likely be more standardized pedagogy present in their schools. Then I posed the question: How would you describe this in terms of different contexts (Title I, non-Title I, or Marginalized)? Together we looked at Analytical Interpretations Table 21, 22, 23, 24 and made claims based on our perceptions and what the interpretations appeared to be saying.

Reasons for Reflexivity. This approach to inquiry is much needed as it values teacher’s construction of their own work and contexts (Goodson, 2014). These teachers provided a final layer of analysis in the inquiry. This reflexive move brought into question the researcher’s interpretations in the inquiry. It also brought the line of questioning back to the classroom and nearer to day-to-day realities of the classroom, the way teachers talk about their work, and concepts of day-to-day curriculum and instruction in the diverse and marginalized contexts. The reason for providing data to the participants was because of their intimate knowledge of the contexts and to value their voice and nuanced perceptions in classrooms and in the interpretation of teachers’ decisions in the research setting. All of the teachers were from Hawai‘i public and public charter schools. All schools were located in Non-Title I, Title-I (more than 40% FRL) and Marginalized contexts (more than 60% FRL and majority of students come from underrepresented groups). The reason for dialogue was to develop critical connections among the teachers while valuing their voice and nuanced perceptions in classrooms and in the interpretation of teachers’ decisions in the research setting. Teachers understand their nuanced professional lives, decisions, and settings better than researchers do. While the research can

TEACHERS DECISIONS

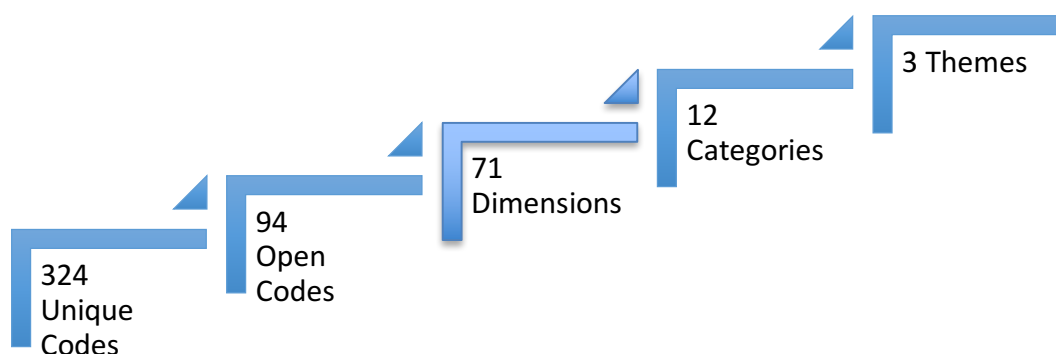
construct a valid argument, it does not capture the reality of the classroom, it interprets a part of it. Therefore, teachers' perspectives are needed as they inform what should be done in practice, scholarship, and in the preparation of teachers.

The final analytical movement contributed thoughts as to why the research interpretations are meaningful in everyday, practical, and professional terms. These reflexive narratives served as a polyphonic construction of the implications of the inquiry and help to make some larger claims about the problems that may exist around policy and pedagogy in diverse and marginalized contexts. The development of grounded and critical understanding of teacher's work created the circumstance to foster a professional dialogue about the ways in which broader social contexts may influence teachers' decisions and perceptions, whether it is appropriate, and what can be done about it.

Continuity of Codes

All of the codes, dimensions, categories, and themes are linked together through the grounded theory methods of analysis. These are inductively produced from the ground up stating with the language in teachers' interviews about their curriculum and instruction.

Analytical Process Figure 3. The Coherence of Inductive Outputs

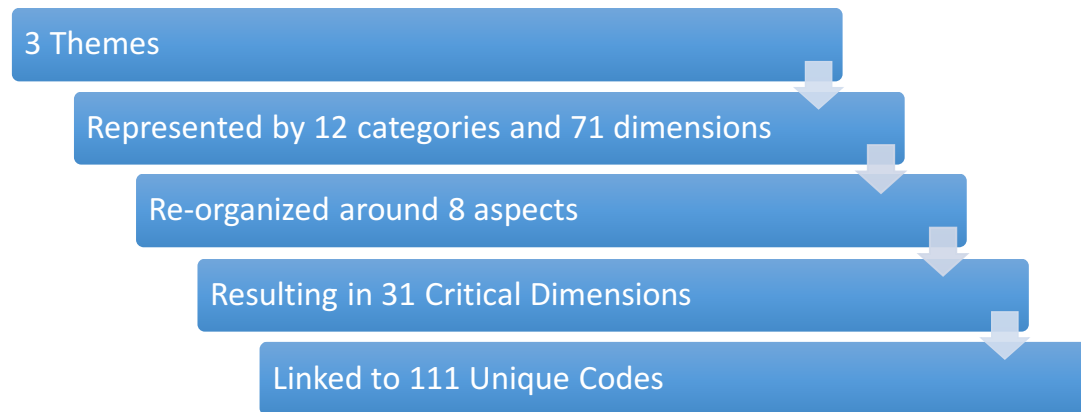


The inductive aspects of this qualitative analysis of the transcripts of 92 teacher interviews from 46 lessons with 28 teachers in 14 schools resulted in 324 unique-decision codes,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

94 open-decision codes, 71 dimensions of 12 conceptual categories leading to three main decision themes.

Analytical Process Figure 4. The Coherence of the Deductive Outputs



The deductive analysis uses the data from the inductive stages of the inquiry in order to understand more about the interpretations of teachers' decisions. The theoretical and critical processes worked forward from the 12 categories and their 71 dimensions located in the three themes. Theoretical analysis sought interpretations that are conceptually linked to four foundational aspects of standardized pedagogy and four foundational aspects of contextualized pedagogies. These foundations were linked to 31 dimensions of the 12 categories, 20 dimensions of which were linked to the four aspects of standardized pedagogy and 11 of which were linked to the four aspects of contextualized pedagogies. Finally, I looked within the different contexts to make sense of teachers' decisions and connecting these interpretations back to the original unique codes in each of the lessons. The 20 dimensions of standardized pedagogies were linked to 97 unique codes from the original transcripts, while the 11 dimensions of contextualized pedagogies linked to 14 unique codes from the original transcripts.

Conclusions on Research Processes

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Constructing an understanding of social processes is an active and iterative process that requires multiple lenses and dialogue to produce genuine nuances around what can only be considered contextually bound, temporal, and transforming truths. As educators, we are required to appreciate, actively interpret, and pluralize the variety of contexts, both macro and local, in order to make sense of things. Even then, another participant, another perspective, another lens, a dynamic context, or temporal moment can influence how we choose or have the opportunity to see things. In this process, constructed meaning and understanding is implicitly relativistic, dynamic, critical, and reflexive.

Additionally, qualitative research and constructions of social phenomena is unique in that the inquiry is never final, and the interpretations are always evolving. Arriving at some general thematic and contextual understanding only brings about an opportunity to critically explore the situation further and from multiple perspectives. The literature creates a space for a critical analysis in relationship to theory, constructs, and practices associated with both standardized and contextualized pedagogies, specifically accountability, culture, critical, and place-based pedagogies. The critical frameworks are used to situate teacher's decisions and perceptions within broader context of education reform, pedagogy and context. Then, given the analytical interpretations, teachers' reflexive interpretations provide commentary on the issues. This process honors a co-construction of understanding around pedagogical foundations in classrooms.

Taken together, the various aspects of the description and inquiry, situated in practice, reform, pedagogy, and student's context, informs critical interpretations of what teachers are saying about their decisions and perception on curriculum and instruction. While I acknowledge these starting, critical, standing, and contextual points, and their value to the overall inquiry, I

TEACHERS DECISIONS

also feel that it is my responsibility, as a teacher and researcher, to not enter into analytical representations and interpretations of teacher's work on purely binary or critical terms. When used together they provide a more holistic picture of the teacher's decisions and perceptions in diverse and marginalized contexts.

CHAPTER 9: RESULTS AND FINDINGS ABOUT TEACHERS' DECISIONS

This chapter presents the findings from interpretations of teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction. Generally speaking, the findings are presented in terms of a thematic model. The thematic model that takes into consideration the range of influence on teacher decisions, from external, internal, and the goal of students' learning. The model is built from the ground up on the organization of the teachers' decisions into 12 conceptual categories. Each of the categories is represented by multiple dimensions of teachers' decisions. All together there are 71 dimensions of the 12 different categories.

The model was built with categories and their dimensions in order to ask additional analytical questions. I begin with the theoretical questions that look at the dimensions of the categories in relationship to language and concepts at the foundation of standardized and contextual pedagogical frameworks. The links that exists between the dimensions of categories and the pedagogical frameworks leads to an opportunity to look deeper into the various contexts to see whether or not there are differences in the use of pedagogies among the various contexts. To do so, the critical dimensions of the categories are linked back to their origins in the transcripts and in contexts, Non-Title I (NT1), Title I (T1), and marginalized (MARG). This multiple process analysis yields significant understandings about the appearance of standardized aspects of pedagogy in teachers' decisions as well as the use of contextualization in teachers' decision-making on curriculum and instruction in the diverse and marginalized educational context. The findings conclude with teachers' reflexive narratives on the significance of the findings. Then, in the following chapter, I discuss the significance of these findings in reference to the barriers to contextualization and against the contextual framework.

Teachers' Decisions Organized into Categories

The framing question for description and discussion of the grounded categories is, “What are teachers’ reasons for their decisions within curriculum and instruction across public school contexts?” Results from this this part of the analysis can be seen in *Appendix 4: Analytical Interpretations Table 1. & 2.*

Analytical Interpretations Table 1. The 12 Categories of Teachers’ Decisions

Categories of Teachers’ Decisions		
Administrative-driven	Differentially Appropriate-based	Resources-based
Assessment-based	Instructional Diversification-based	Sequence-based
Autonomy-driven	Student Engagement-driven	Skill-building
Context-building	Professional Learning-based (PD)	Standards-based

Teachers appeared to provide a wide variety of reasons why it is they decide on particular curriculum materials and instructional strategies within particular lessons. The teachers’ decisions interpreted in this study are organized into the following conceptual categories (in alphabetical order): *Administrative-driven, Assessment-based, Autonomy-driven, Context-building, Differentially Appropriate-based, Instructional Diversification-based, Student Engagement-driven, Professional Learning-based (PD), Resources-based, Sequence-based, Skill-building, and Standards-based.* Each of the categories is built upon dimensions of teachers’ decisions. I share some of the examples for reasons teachers provide and together the dimensions provide the strength as a singular category

Analytical Interpretations Table 2. Frequencies of Category Across Cases and Contexts

High Frequency Code (<20)	Freq.	Lower Frequency Code (>20)	Freq.
Engagement-based	44	Resources-based	17
Diverse learning strategies	38	Autonomy-driven	16
Administrative-driven	34	Sequence-based	16
Assessment-based	29	Differentially Appropriate-based	15
Standards-based	28	Professional Development (PD)	11
Skill-building	28		
Context-building	25		
<i>Total Frequency of Unique Codes</i>	<i>226</i>		<i>75</i>

Frequency and distribution of codes across lessons. Each of the categories contain significant amounts of dimensional nuance (derived from the constant comparison of open and focused codes). Each of categories contains a frequency of codes (or overall representation in the data) and of dimensions. These frequencies are useful in making additional analysis with regards to the power dynamics of the reasons, particularly which reasons appear to dominate teachers' decision-making. The dimensions and their frequency within the larger amount of codes is useful when considering the larger question of what are the foundations of and influences on teachers' decisions? In the following table, I list the categories in order of the frequency of codes distributed in the individual categories, and I named the categories higher-frequency categories and lower frequency categories. Higher-frequency categories contained more than 25 mentions across all of the original codes. Findings from this part of the analysis can be found in *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 3-14*.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

It is worth noting that no reasons were dominant within individual lessons or from individual teachers. All codes, even the most frequent codes came from multiple individual lessons. For example, there were 15 mentions of professional autonomy in the data set, those mentions came from 15 different interviews. Additionally, there were over 16 mentions of state mandated curriculums. The mention of these at the foundations of teachers' decisions came from 13 different interviews. In another example, there were 15 mentions of assessments at the foundation of teachers' decisions, and these codes came from 15 different interviews. The point being that the codes are distributed across lessons, and one teachers' reasons did not represent a singular category.

Decisions Categorized as Student Engagement-Driven

Dimensions of the *Student Engagement-driven* category are represented in the Analytical Interpretations Table 3. The table contains the seven dimensions of the *Student Engagement-driven* category. There was a total of 44 references to student engagement across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 3. Dimensions of Student Engagement Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Student engagement</i>	Inquiry-based	9
	Discussion-based	8
	Technology-based	7
	General	6
	The Hook	6
	Project-based	5
	Multidisciplinary	3
<i>Total Frequency</i>		44

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The *Student Engagement-driven* category was the largest conceptual category associated with interpretations of teachers' decisions. I organized the category based on dimensions related to teachers' reasoning as an effort to increase students' interest and motivation towards the particular lesson. This category contained decisions that teachers made because students found the dimensions meaningful or interesting, or teachers thought their curriculum and instruction would keep the attention of students during the learning process. In some cases, the teacher referenced student engagement explicitly in terms of inquiry, discussions, and the use of technology, while in others talked more generally about dimensions of their curriculum and instruction that generated student interest, kept students' attention, or that students found enjoyable. For example, one of the teachers explained their decision for using specific curriculum materials to encourage students to engage in questioning about their lesson in the following way,

The structure tends to be that the students are posed a problem and it's not like, "This is how you do this mathematical process or equation and now you practice it." It's more like, "This is the problem. How are we going to solve it? What do we need to know?" They come up with the follow up questions that they need to ask each other in their groups. They go through that process of, "Okay, we need to know this? How do we find the LCM? Oh, we learned that before. Okay, let's pull that knowledge in. (NT1; 7th Grade; Math; curriculum interview; dimension-*inquiry-based*)

In another lesson, the teacher chose to focus on technology (in this case, computers) as the reason behind using particular curriculum materials,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The Chromebooks were used to facilitate the writing. As before, the kids don't really like writing with their pencils. (MAR; 5th Grade; Science; curriculum interview; dimension-*technology-based*)

In these two examples, and across all of the dimensions in the students' engagement category teachers appeared to base their decisions on students' interests, motivation, and engagement with the curriculum and instruction.

Decisions Categorized as Instructional Diversification-Based

Dimensions of the *Instructional Diversification-based* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 4*. The table contains the seven dimensions of the *Instructional Diversification-based* category. There was a total of 38 references to student engagement across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 4. Dimensions of Instructional Diversification Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Diverse Learning</i>	Visual	11
	Self-directed	10
	Tactile	6
	Grouping	5
	Auditory	3
	Logical	2
	General Reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		38

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The *Instructional Diversification-based* category was the second largest conceptual category. It was organized based on dimensions related to teachers' talk about their decisions as an effort to diversify their instructional strategies within a particular lesson. This category contained decisions that teachers made because they wanted students to experience a range of diverse learning experiences. Though similar in that these decisions related to students' involvement in curriculum and instruction, the reasoning differed slightly from the engagement-based category. In this category, teachers referenced wanting students to see visual representations of knowledge, have hands on experiences with curriculum materials, receive auditory representations, and be able to self-direct themselves through the learning process. For example, one teacher noted:

The multimedia, the video is really engaging and it's pretty much the only thing that can show the true destruction of Sherman's March. Then, the images, the kids are so focused on them, and they latch right on to them and it meets the needs and the learning styles of all of our kids and shows the impact in the most ways possible, so if we can meet all the learning styles the first time, we only have to teach something or clarify something once. (NT1; 8th Grade; Social Studies; curriculum interview; dimension-*visual*)

While another teacher mentioned a separate dimension of diverse-learning,

I really appreciate inference cards because it's something in their hands that they can actually see and reference in the text. For some reason, my kids think cards are [more] than just a piece of paper. (MAR; 3rd Grade; ELA; curriculum interview; dimension-*tactile*)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In these lessons, the teachers appeared to base their decisions on presenting curriculum and instruction in diverse ways.

Decisions Categorized as Administrative-Driven

Dimensions of the *Administrative-driven* category are represented in *Analytical Interpretations Table 5*. The table contains the seven dimensions of the *Administrative-driven* category. There was a total of 34 references to administrative directives across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 5. Dimensions of *Administrative-Driven* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Administrative-driven</i>	State-mandate	13
	Scripted-curriculum	10
	Publisher-materials	5
	District-strategy	2
	Mandated best-practices	2
	AP-curriculum	1
	General reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		34

The *Administrative-driven* category was represented by a frequent amount of unique codes across the field texts. The category is markedly different from either of the other previously mentioned as teachers appeared to base their decisions for particular lessons on dimensions related to school, state, and national mandates. This included a mention of publishers' materials as a motivation driving their thinking and subsequent actions. This category contained references to teachers' decisions that are associated with a range of state

TEACHERS DECISIONS

mandates, scripted curriculum, district strategies, and mandated best practices. For example, one of the teacher-participants notes that she was mandated to teach a particular curriculum. She shared,

I chose to teach this lesson because it incorporates our Wonders curriculum, which is our state mandated curriculum that the state wants us to teach. (NT1; K; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*state mandate*)

In most cases, teachers explicitly referenced these outside sources as contributing to why they choose to teach particular lessons or curriculum materials. For example, one teacher claimed in her interview,

This lesson follows our curriculum, so it's a little bit less flexibility in regards to content that I can teach (MARG; 2nd; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*state mandate*)

While another one stated,

Well for one, of course, it's there; the Spring Board book, the lesson is there. (MARG; 9th; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*scripted*)

Decisions Categorized as Assessment-Based

Dimensions of the *Assessment-based* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 6*. The table contains the six dimensions of the *Assessment-based* category. There was a total of 29 references to assessment across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 6. Dimensions of *Assessment-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Assessment-based</i>	General Reference	8
	Identified student weakness	6
	Test-driven AP	5
	Data Team-driven	6
	Student self-assessment	3
	Test-driven SBAC	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		29

Decisions interpreted as *Assessment-based* were also a very frequent in terms of a conceptual category. The category was organized based on interview segments where teachers talk about basing lessons decisions on their knowledge of, or assessment of, students' academic skills. Many of the dimensions in this category are general in that teachers simply mentioned their reasons for choosing curriculum and instruction were based on their knowledge of student assessments, teachers' assessments, team-based assessments, or students' self-assessments. In a few cases, teachers explicitly referenced that student performance in some areas was poor on standardized assessments. For example, one teacher directly mentioned the standardized test as a basis for their choosing specific instruction. She stated,

We also decided on this standard because in the SBAC [Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium] they're going to have to be doing a lot of gathering evidence and writing text evidence to support their answers in several different resources. (MARG; 4th; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*test-driven-SBAC*)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Another teacher was more concerned with whether or not she was matching her assessment with the objective of the lesson. She shared,

I created [the template] because I wanted to provide some support because this is not a lesson about “can you write a story”. This is a lesson about can you find the main idea of something that you created. I needed to tailor it so that it matched what I was actually assessing. (MARG; 4th; ELA; materials interview; dimension-*general*)

Another teacher commented quite generally about using their assessment of student learning to drive their instruction, when she noted,

Looking back at their formative assessment from Thursday, we discovered that they are very good in their algorithm and computational thinking, but my students really need help with decoding problem solving. (MARG; 5th; math; instructional interview; dimension-*general*)

Decisions Categorized as Standards-Based

Dimensions of the *Standards-based* category are represented in the *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 7*. The table contains the six dimensions of the *Standards-based* category. There was a total of 29 references to standards across all of the teachers’ interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 7. Dimensions of *Standards-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Standards-based</i>	General reference	17
	Common Core standards	7
	Standards-Benchmarks	1
	Scripted-targets	1
	HCPS	1
	NGSS	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		28

Dimensions of the *Standards-based* category are represented in the *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 7*. The *Standards-based* category was a high frequency conceptual category as well. It was organized based on dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based primarily on standards for curriculum and instruction. Many of the references in this category are from teachers describing their reasons for choosing curriculum and instruction being based on the general standards, though teachers also included explicit reference to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), Hawai'i Content and Performance Standard (HCPS) benchmarks as well as mandated standards. For example, one of the teachers mentioned that their grade-level came together and chose a specific standard. She explained,

The 4th grade teachers, we all decided to do a Common Core standard 4.1, which we saw was a struggle for the students, which is referring to details in examples in a text when explaining what the text is explicitly and with drawing inferences from the text. (MARG; 4th; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*Common Core*)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Another teacher mentioned that the basis of the decision,

Our school is in line with all of Common Core, so we do use the geometry curriculum that has been prescribed by the state, and any tools that the curriculum asks for we do use in class. (T1; 10th; math; curriculum interview; dimension-*Common Core*)

In similar fashion, another teacher explained the decision in this manner,

I chose this lesson because the Wonders Reading Program is a nationally mandated program that capitalizes on English language acquisition and subsequently, if you look at my input chart, I aligned it with the HCPS III Science standards (MARG; K; science; instructional interview; dimension-*HCPS*)

In each of these three cases, the teachers appeared to be directly referencing federal and state-mandated standards as the foundations of their decisions on curriculum and instruction.

Decisions Categorized as Skill-Building

Dimensions of the *Skill-building* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 8*. The table contains the eight dimensions of the *Skill-building* category. There was a total of 28 references to academic skills across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 8. Dimensions of *Skill-Building* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Skill-building</i>	Academic Target-ELA	11
	Academic Target-Math	7
	Target-based (general)	4
	Leveled-instruction	2
	Academic Skill- opinions	2
	Career Skills	1
	Academic Skill- Collaboration	1
	Academic Skill- Questioning	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		28

The *Skill-building* category was a high frequency and nuanced conceptual category. It contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based on a range of targeted and specific academic skills. Many of the references in this category were from teachers describing their reasons for choosing curriculum and instruction being based on academic targets in Common Core subject areas. In addition, teachers mentioned that they using students' future career skills as the basis for their decisions. For example, one teacher explained,

The questions stem sheets are just extra support for students that are learning how to ask questions. They don't know where to start. They will look at the sheet and help them with their questioning. (MARG; 9th; ELA; curriculum interview; dimension-*academic skill-questioning*)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

While another teacher noted that,

Now we're working on decomposing numbers from eleven to nineteen, and then we will be decomposing those. The kids are expected to be able to do that in kindergarten and then it's also in later grades when they're learning place value, when they're learning multi-digit addition to be able to know that like eleven is a ten and one. It just really helps with their number sense and helps them to be able to learn those later skills more easily.

(MARG; K; math; instructional interview; dimension-*academic target-math*)

Decisions Categorized as Context-Building

Dimensions of the *Context-building* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 9*. The table contains the 11 dimensions of the *Context-building* category. There was a total of 25 references to contextualization across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 9. Dimensions of *Context-building* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Context-building</i>	Real-world place	4
	Field-based	4
	Real-world scenario	3
	Value of Literature	3
	General	3
	Future application	2
	Pop-culture	2
	Humanization	1
	Identity development	1
	Primary sources	1
	Women's issues	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		25

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The *Context-building* category was built around the lower end of the higher frequency of unique codes. It contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based contextual factors in students' lives. Many of the references in this category include places, scenarios, and the future application of academic knowledge. Teachers also based their decisions in this category on pop-culture and more nuanced aspect of identity, women's issues, and humanizing connections to curriculum and instruction. For example, one of the teachers commented that students can participate in the lesson by talking about the places that they have visited, whether locally or outside of Hawai'i. She described her decision on this dimension of context when she states,

That Google form is a third way to get information into the Google Maps. You import the data and then they'll import and then all the pins will pop up on their map. They're going to tri-color it, they'll see "places I've been," "places I want to go" and "places my classmates have been." It should be a fun way to introduce them to maps, to the world, to just opening their horizons. (NT1; 7th; Social Studies; instructional interview; dimension-*real world place*)

In another instance, a teacher shared that the decisions were based on making connections to a local eatery. The teacher mentioned,

I figured that has no relevance to them, so I thought what we would do today is we would find ... I'm giving them a menu and they're going to choose what they want to eat, and it's from Assagio's because it's good stuff over there and they're going to find the tax; how much their meal would cost. I'm going to give them a coupon so they have to find a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

discount. Then they would figure out how much tip they would leave for their server. I wanted to put some relevance to what we've been learning. (NT1; 6th; Science; instructional interview; dimension-*real world place*)

Another teacher appeared to be focused on developing students' emotional connection for the content of the lesson by placing the novel they are using in class and resituated the story in a time and place where students may be able to generate feelings about their own experiences. For example,

For this particular one, our focus is actually our own experiences. I think that actually drives it home because it's not about anything else but what they feel and who they are. Actually, it's an adaptation of mine. I needed to have them, again, be more engaged, find the connection, very important. Technically it was just for them to scan the laws just to get a general idea of a secular and primary resource. But I needed to get them more involved into the context of *To Kill a Mockingbird*, because there's so much emotion, human emotion, human reaction, and it's all real. (MARG; 9th; ELA; curriculum interview; dimension-*identity development*)

Decisions Categorized as Resources-Based

Dimensions of the *Resources-based* category are represented in the *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 10*. The table contains the 3 dimensions of the *Resources-based* category. There was a total of 17 references to classroom resources across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 10. Dimensions of *Resource-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Resource-based</i>	Routine-ease of use	13
	Availability	2
	Inexpensive	2
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>17</i>

The *Resources-based* category was a less frequent and less nuanced conceptual category. It contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based on curricular and instructional resources that they could find to support student learning. In this category, the majority of the references focused on the routine-use of specific materials in the classroom, thereby capitalizing on students' familiarity with the aspects of curriculum and instruction. Teachers also based their decisions in this category on availability of resources and whether or not these resources were inexpensive. Sample evidence for teachers' resourced-based decisions included,

My plastic letters and numbers have been the best investment ever because I have used them for multiple lessons. You just use them over, and over and over again. (MARG; SPED-lower elementary; ELA; curriculum interview; dimension-*routine*)

While another teacher described decision-making on curriculum as something that is manageable and consistent over time. For example,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The slides are my just generic template, that's how I do all of my organization, so that's the easiest method for me. I know for many teachers, and I've trained people on kind of using these things, many teachers it would take them eight hours to make a week's worth of slides, but I've been doing it for so many years it's something that is comfortable for me. It is faster for me to do that than to write into a book. (T1; 10th; math; curriculum interview; dimension-*routine*)

Decisions Interpreted as Autonomy-Driven

Dimensions of the *Autonomy-driven* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 11*. The table contains the 5 dimensions of the *Autonomy-driven* category. There was a total of 17 references to teachers' autonomy across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 11. Dimensions of *Professional Autonomy* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Professional Autonomy</i>	Modifications to the script	8
	General Reference	4
	Opposed to the script	2
	Outside supplemental resources	1
	Previous experience	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>16</i>

The *Autonomy-driven* category was not a particularly dominant category for teachers' decisions. The category contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based on making autonomous professional decisions to support student learning. In this category, the majority of the references focused on teachers making

TEACHERS DECISIONS

modifications to a scripted or standardized version of curriculum and instruction. Some teachers described their decisions generally as professional decisions. For example, one teacher provided a description of her decision on curriculum in opposition to the curriculum that is being used by the school. She stated,

I use Saxon curriculum and I was noticing in the curriculum the mini-lessons weren't really helping my students connect the dots. (MARG; 3rd; math; instructional interview; dimension-*opposed to the script*)

While other teachers talked about dimensions of autonomy in terms of making modifications to the script. One teacher noted,

Now that I've kind of figured out how the program works, I've felt a little better about creating my own lessons to branch off of it. In the beginning, we were just following it step by step and just trying to get the hang of it. I think now we feel comfortable with the process that it goes through, so we can find other lessons just to supplement and make it more enriching for the students. (NT1; 6th; math; materials interview; dimension-*modifications to the script*)

In each of these cases, teachers appeared to be acknowledging the decisions that are being handed down to them from some administrative decisions, and then are choosing to make changes or acting in opportunities to those scripted decisions.

Decisions Categorized as Sequence-Based

Dimensions of the *Sequence-based* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 12*. The table contains the 2 dimensions of the *Sequence-based* category.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

There was a total of 16 references to sequencing the curriculum across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 12. Dimensions of *Sequencing* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Sequencing the curriculum</i>	Unit sequence	8
	Content Sequence	8
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>16</i>

The *Sequence-based* category was a less frequent and less nuanced conceptual category. It contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based on sequencing the curriculum. In this category, the majority of the references focus on teachers choosing curriculum and instruction because it was the next lesson in the unit or the next academic skill or knowledge associated with the content of the lesson. For example, one teacher mentioned,

We just finished the previous topic so we're moving to the next one. (MARG; K; math; instructional interview; dimension-*Unit sequence*)

While another shared,

I'm choosing to teach this lesson as a continuation of the unit that we have been working on. (MARG; 5th; science; instructional interview; dimension-*Unit sequence*)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Yet another teacher mentions sequencing, but in reference to the content of the lesson, and what students will be able to do at previous and later educational stages. In this example, the teacher explained,

This lesson is on interior angles of polygons. It sort of fits into the sequence that we've been teaching. We've kind of started with parallel lines, interior angles of triangles, we've proven a lot of the angle relationships within those triangles and within those shapes. We did quadrilaterals recently, so we're kind of building up. There's a lot of topics in between those topics, so it's not like it goes exactly in sequence. The next logical step, or the next step, is interior angles of polygons. (T1; 10th; math; instructional interview; dimension-*content sequence*)

In each of these cases, the teachers appeared to be directly referencing what has come before and what may come after in their curriculum and instruction as the basis for their decisions.

Differentially Appropriate-Based

Dimensions of the *Differentially Appropriate-based* category are represented in the *Analytical Interpretations Table 13*. The table contains the 4 dimensions of the *Differentially Appropriate-based* category. There was a total of 16 references to differentiating the curriculum and instruction across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 13. Dimensions of *Differ. Appropriate* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Differentially Appropriate-based</i>	General	6
	For individual	5
	For ELL	3
	For SPED	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>15</i>

The *Differentially Appropriate-based* category was a less frequent conceptual category, but was unique in that it referenced students' development or status within a special population. In this category, the majority of the references are general references to developmentally appropriateness, English Language Learners (ELL) and Special Education (SPED) students. In reference to the concept of differentially appropriateness of the lesson, a teacher suggested,

It also gives me time to work with my students that need a little extra help with reading. Once I put this into place, it gives that structure that then I can start doing small group and reaching the kids that need that extra attention, and then the other kids are still getting a great experience out of it also. (NT1; 3rd; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-general)

Another teacher used the interview as an opportunity to talk about her decisions in terms of English Language Learners. The teacher shared that her treatment of ELL students was mandated by their complex area,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

GLAD was mandated by the Sunnyside Complex for the schools in our complex to use because, I guess, we have a high population of ELL students. It helps to address issues with language development. (MARG; K; science; instructional interview; dimension-*ELL*)

These teachers appeared to directly target special populations or students' developmental levels as the reasons for their curriculum and instruction.

Decisions Categorized as Professional Learning-based

Dimensions of the *Professional Learning-based (PD)* category are represented in the *Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 14*. The table contains the 5 dimensions of the *Professional Learning-based (PD)* category. There was a total of 11 references to teachers' professional development across all of the teachers' interviews.

Analytical Interpretations Table 14. Dimensions of *Professional Development*

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Professional Development</i>	Philosophy for Children	4
	Professional sharing	4
	CREDE	1
	Google Maps	1
	General Reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>11</i>

The *Professional Learning-based (PD)* category was the least frequent interpreted conceptual category on which teachers appeared to have based their decisions. It contained evidence of dimensions of teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction being based on

TEACHERS DECISIONS

professional relationships and specific professional developments in which they had participated. Some teachers talk about borrowing their curriculum and instruction from other teachers while others mention that they had participated in a particular professional learning experience focused on an innovative teaching method. Evidence of the PD category was represented in a dimension referencing a teacher who stated,

Our school has a partnership with CREDE from the University. We're focusing on small group instruction as our powerful instructional practice. (MARG; 2nd; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*CREDE*)

While another teacher appeared to reference another professional learning experience that they have worked into their thinking about curriculum and instruction. The teacher shared,

I've been a part of Philosophy for Children (P for C) for the last three years, and I've just noticed that my students are really engaged with it. It's a way to allow our kids the opportunity to think philosophically together, to practice critical thinking, to develop an intellectually safe community, and to be able to reflect on their contributions to that whole process. (MARG; 2nd; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*P for C*)

Discussion of Categories with Teacher Reflexivity

Across all the categories, teachers seem to base their decisions on a number of unique professional categories, each containing some dimensional nuance. Interestingly, there are significant differences in the frequencies among the categories with the overwhelming majority (more than $\frac{2}{3}$) of the codes and dimensions within seven of 12 categories including, and in order of largest to smallest in these higher frequency categories: *Engagement-based*, *Diverse learning strategies*, *Administrative-based*, *Assessment-based*, *Standards-based*, *Skill-building*, and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Context-building. The largest two categories overall focus on teachers' classroom practice that is related to the students, as is evidenced by *Engagement-based* (44) and *Diverse learning strategies* (38). That said, the largest singular dimensions appeared to be general references to standards-based decisions (17) and state-mandated decisions (13). Overall, among the top five categories, there was a trend of teachers' focusing on students in their decisions making or focusing on more *Administrative-based*, *Assessment-based*, and *Standards-based*.

In the reflexive consultation with teachers about how their decisions were being represented, I provided them with exercises to help explore the categories. Teachers were generally able to make the connections between the dimensions and the larger conceptual categories. However, some challenges existed in the naming of some of the dimensions. For example, a dimension of the *contextually-based* decisions category (coming from an original unique, *in vivo* code) was name *contextualization-shock*. This concept needed renaming because it did not make practical sense. Teachers suggested that I go back into the category and rename, and perhaps, combine aspects of this dimensions as *the hook*. Teachers also shared that *the hook* was more appropriate for what they would call that type of action in the classroom. Further, teachers indicated the need for me to change some of the language of the skill-building category to reflect the concept I was constructing more clearly. Initially, I did not accurately represent that teachers were talking explicitly about target academic skills, which included relationships to official and academic basic academic skill sets as represented by standard curriculum, standard practice, or the standards themselves. For this reason, I renamed some of the dimensions of this category to more accurately reflect this construct.

Discussion of Thematic Model

The discussion of the thematic model of teachers' decisions relies on the following research question: *How can I make sense of teachers' decisions given an understanding that they are informed by internal, external, and classroom influences?* This question emerged from a consideration of the relationships between the 12 categories of teachers' decisions and their various dimensions. Given the multiple relations between the categories, there are several ways to organize the model. The question drives an opportunity to create a meaningful representation of teachers' decisions in relationship to the multiple influences on teachers' professional and classroom decisions. In what follows, I include a hypothetical example to demonstrate that these categories can be modeled in multiple ways, but also as a way to continue to expose my initial orientation towards interpreting teachers' decisions in overly critical ways. In doing so, I expose reasons why the model that I chose is appropriate given substantial research on teachers' decisions and as a way to initiate further analysis. I conclude this discussion with some teachers' perspectives on modeling these categorical relationships.

A Hypothetical Hierarchical Model

To explore how teachers' decisions could be thematically organized, I modeled different ways of making sense of teachers' decisions. At first, I looked back on my critical perspective about the hierarchical nature of teachers' decisions in relationship to the school as an institution and the powerful mechanisms of policy. In this hierarchical model, the *Administrative-driven*, *Standards-based*, *Assessment-based*, *Sequence-based*, and *PD-based* influences were situated at the top of the model. I chose to place these categories at the top because they contained dimensions related to aspects of classroom practice in which teachers had less, limited, or no control over the basis of the decisions in their classrooms. In addition, as teachers mentioned

TEACHERS DECISIONS

various reasons behind their decisions, teachers appeared to be influenced by a range of state mandates, curriculums, district mandates, federal policy, national standards, tests, and professional developments. In most cases, these influential dimensions of teachers' decisions were decided on at various levels of powerful administration (district, state, and federal), and mandated to the teachers. One such mandate arrived in the form of textbooks from publishers outside of Hawaii. For example, a teacher mentioned,

This is a lesson that I chose to teach because it is something that you will see in curriculum, the state mandated curriculum of Wonders" (MARG; 2nd; ELA; instructional interview; *dimension-state mandates*).

These are aspects of the job that teachers must participate in, and in a prescribed way. Another teacher indicated,

The curriculum is passed on by the state, so we have to, have to use that. It's our first year using it, so we're just kind of going with the flow and trying to figure out how things work. In the beginning, we were just following it [script] step by step and just trying to get the hang of it. (NT1; 6th; Math; instructional interview; *dimension-scripted*)

Other teachers are influenced by *administrative-driven* mandates talked about as district-wide instructional strategies as well as dimensions of the *Standards-based* category. This category is full of teacher references to standards of learning that are chosen at the level of the federal government. This includes Common Core State Standards (CCSS) that were mandated by the federal government for use by states that "won" *Race to the Top* funding, or Hawai'i Content and Performance Standards decided on by the state. While this hierarchical model is important

TEACHERS DECISIONS

for thinking about teachers' decisions, it is not the only way to do so, and not the most common way that teachers think about their work, and it doesn't incorporate all of the research which values teachers as autonomous actors in their own classrooms. In many ways, I did not think it was fair to simply represent teachers' decisions in a top-down model. I needed a model that was more located within the perspective of teachers, but incorporated the role of influences on teachers' decision-making processes.

A Thematic Model

This thematic model is represented in *Analytical Interpretations Table 15. Thematic Aspects of the Practical Continuum*. In this table, there are three main aspects of the continuum. These aspects are linked to the spheres of influence on teachers' decisions. Each of the themes contains at least two of the 12 categories. Each category retains its dimensions in the model.

Analytical Interpretations Table 16. Thematic Aspects of the Practical Continuum

<i>Thematic Aspect of Continuum</i>	Structure-centered	Teacher-centered	Learning-centered
<i>Category</i>	Administrative-driven	Assessment-based	Engagement-based
	Standards-based	Skill-building	Diverse learning-based
		Resource-based	Contextual-based
		Autonomy-driven	Differentially Appropriate-based
		Sequence-based	
		PD-based	
<i>Frequency of Unique Codes</i>	62	117	122

TEACHERS DECISIONS

While exploring some of the possibilities for how the categories representing teachers' decisions could be organized, I tried placing student-engagement in the center of the model and then organized the variety of influences or strategies that allowed teachers to engage their students around this center. In another attempt, I positioned standards as the goal of teachers' decisions, making it the most central of categories. This construction had all the other categories in support of providing teachers with opportunities to support students reaching the standards.

Within the whole of modeling, three themes kept emerging, and they appeared to be very closely related to how teachers talked about their decisions. Teachers generally mentioned three influences on their decisions making:

1. Influences that appeared to be from outside the classroom, such as the administrator or the governmental policy.
2. Reasons that focused on teachers making decisions that were in their best interests as professionals
3. Reasons that appeared to be more centered on students' learning in the classroom.

Given this range of modeling, I thought a thematic model that represents a continuum of decisions--some influenced by the outside, some focused on the teachers' professional planning, and some more centrally focused on students in the classroom, made the most sense. It helped to conceptualize aspects and dimensions of influence in relationship to schools as institutions that are directed by policy, but also created a space for teachers as autonomous professionals who make the significant day-to-day decisions more directly related to their classrooms and students' learning.

Analytical Interpretations Table 17. Categorical Dimensions of Structure-centered Theme

<i>Category</i>	Administrative-driven	Standards-based
<i>Dimension</i>	State-mandate	General reference
	Scripted-curriculum	Common Core standards
	Publisher-materials	Standards-Benchmarks
	District-strategy	Scripted-targets
	Mandated best-practices	Hawai‘i Content and Performance Standards (HCPS)
	AP-curriculum	Next Generation Science Standards NGSS)
	General reference	

Description of the structure-centered theme. The Structure-centered themes contained the categories and dimensions most conceptually relevant to curriculum and instruction decisions that are made outside of teacher’s control, as located in Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 17. These categories included what teachers’ interviews suggest, and I interpreted as, Administrative-driven and Standards-based. These two categories were represented by various dimensions that include, State-mandate, Scripted-curriculum, Publisher-materials, District-strategy, mandated best-practices, AP-curriculum, Common Core standards, Standards-Benchmarks, Scripted-targets, Hawai‘i Content and Performance (HCPS), and Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS). In each of these categories and across their dimensions, the federal and state government, or outside institutions, appear to influence teachers’ decisions. There is a link between teacher decision and frameworks and structure for curriculum and instruction that are not developed in or decided on by the individual teacher.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Interpretations Table 18. Categorical Dimensions of *Teacher-Centered Theme*

<i>Category</i>	<i>Assessment</i>	<i>Academic Skill-building</i>	<i>Resources</i>	<i>Sequence</i>	<i>PD-based</i>	<i>Autonomy</i>
<i>Dimension</i>	General	Target-ELA	Routine-use	Unit	P4C	Modify the script
	student weaknesses	Target-Math	Availability	Content	Professional sharing	General
	Test-driven AP	Target-based (general)	Inexpensive		CREDE	Oppose the script
	Data Team-driven	Leveled-instruction			Google Maps	Outside resources
	Student assessment	Skill- opinions			General	
	Test-driven SBAC	Career Skills				
		Skill-Collaboration				
		Skill-Questioning				

Description of teacher-centered theme. The teacher-centered themes contained the categories and dimensions most conceptually relevant to curriculum and instruction decisions that are made closer to teachers' control, with teachers' consideration, or with the teacher acting as an intermediary, as located in Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 18. These categories included what teachers' interviews suggest, and I interpreted as, Assessment-based, Skill-building, Resource-based, Autonomy-driven, Sequence-based, and PD-based. Additionally, the categories included dimensions of teachers' decisions as interpreted as, Students' Weaknesses, AP-test, Data-teams, Self-assessment, SBAC-test, Target-ELA, Target-Math, Leveled-instruction, Academic-opinions, Career-skills, Academic-Collaboration, Academic-

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Questioning, Routine-use, Availability, Inexpensiveness, Philosophy for Children, Professional sharing, CREDE, Google Maps, Modify the script, Oppose the script, and Outside-resources. As a whole, these categories contribute to the teacher and classroom centered decisions about assessing students learning, targeting particular skill sets, and using the curriculum in a useful and planned manner.

Analytical Interpretations Table 19. Categorical Dimensions of *Learning-centered* Theme

<i>Category</i>	Engagement	Diverse	Contextual	Differential
<i>Dimension</i>	Inquiry-based	Visual	Real-world place	General
	Discussion-based	Self-directed	Field-based	Individual
	Technology-based	Tactile	Real-world scenario	ELL
	General	Grouping	Value of Literature	SPED
	The Hook	Auditory	General	
	Project-based	Logical	Future application	
	Multidisciplinary	General Reference	Pop-culture	
			Humanization	
			Identity development	
			Primary sources	
			Women's issues	

Description of learning-centered theme. The *learning-centered* theme was represented by four separate categories. These categories were most conceptually relevant to curriculum and instruction decisions that are mostly within teacher's control and focusing specifically on the students and students' learning, with teacher consideration, or with the teacher acting as an intermediary between students and learning. These dimensions are represented in *Appendix*

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 19. Categories included what teachers' interviews suggest, and I interpreted as, *Engagement-based, Instructional Diversification-based, Contextually-based, Differentially Appropriate-based*. This further included the various dimensions of teachers' decisions as interpreted as, *Inquiry-based, Discussion-based, Technology-based, Project-based, Multidisciplinary, The Hook, Visual-learning, Self-directed-learning, Tactile-learning, Grouping, Auditory-learning, Logical-based, Place-based, Field-based, Scenario-based, Application, Pop-culture, Value of Literature, Humanizing, Identity-based, Primary Sources-based, and Gender-based*. As a whole, these categories were focused on aspects of students learning and specific decisions a teacher could make in the classroom to support students' learning.

Discussion of themes. This model represents the thematic organization of the categories into 3 specific themes. Each theme represents a slightly different locus of influence on, or foundation of, teachers' practice. In reading right to left, the *learning-centered* theme is influenced by students' learning and classroom decisions that relate directly to students' learning. The middle theme, *teacher-centered*, links with categories that are based on teachers' decisions on curriculum and instruction as an intermediary between students and the administrative structures, or making decisions for themselves to complete the tasks being asked of them and relating to students learning. Finally, the column on the left, *structure-centered*, generally represented the structures of schools as institutions responsible for students' academic performance and accountable to a host of governmental organizations at a variety of school, state, and federal levels. Teachers were directly referencing people and structures outside the classroom as a foundation of their decisions.

The thematic model is meaningful way to make sense of different influence in and on

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers' decisions. The themes are clearly focused on different locus. For example, in *structure-centered*, teachers reference external influences from the variety of institutional structures, schools, districts, states, and federal influences. This varies from the *teacher-centered* theme where teachers are making curricular and instructional decisions primarily about how to assess students, what skills students need, and how teachers can use the curriculum and professional learning opportunities to facilitate students learning. Finally, the learning-centered theme is specifically focused on how teachers present curriculum and instruction impacting students' learning.

An important point, and as the thematic interpretations suggest, especially in *Analytical Interpretations Table 16.*, teachers' decisions were overwhelming based on teachers' professional perspectives about their curriculum and instruction with regards to classroom concerns, and especially as they relate to students' learning. Considering the dimensions and frequencies of thematic model is important for constructing a more holistic understanding influences on teachers' decisions making, especially prior to asking more theoretical and critical questions. Over 75% of teachers' decisions focus on their needs as professionals, such a routine curriculum, opportunities to assess students learning, and their classroom day-to-day. This included students' levels of preparedness, students' engagement, and the relatedness of the curriculum to students lives. Of these, over ½ of teachers' decisions are specifically related to learning centered decisions focusing on aspects of student engagement, diverse learning, the context of the lesson, and its appropriateness for students' academic and developmental levels. Finally, based on the frequencies of unique codes, approximately 20% of teachers' decisions are linked to more structural based decisions in relation to external influences of standards and administration.

Teacher interpretations of thematic models. When talking about the various models,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers communicated that they could look at these categories from a critical perspective, and in terms of the administration and other entities outside the classroom as dictating what should be done in the classroom. The teachers' hierarchical model illustrates more external influenced categories focused on administration and standards sat above *Skill-building* and *Resource-based* decisions. Particularly, this is where teachers, while working within clearly identified academic skills and goals, had slightly more control over what they chose as curriculum and instruction. Finally, categories like *Autonomy-driven*, *Engagement-based*, *Instructional-diversification*, *Context-building*, and *differential instruction* aligned more closely with teachers' professional decisions. This indicated that teachers had more choice over what would be done, and perhaps were considered less by administrator who made very powerful decisions. It seemed that the sections at the top of the chart were furthest away from the classroom and things at the bottom appeared to be closest to the locus of the classroom and the students. This was particularly the case for veteran teachers who participated in the modeling.

Frequencies of the of the three main themes offered an understanding that most decisions appeared to be linked to teachers' professional actions in the classroom, the hierarchical model became slightly less relevant and dominant. The teachers acknowledged that a hierarchical model was only one way of looking at the categories and that these categories could look very different depending on the context of the school and make-up of administration where they worked. Some suggested that the model might look differently depending on the priorities, knowledge, or perspective of the administration. As I spoke with different teachers, some placed standards alone at the top as the target of their curriculum and instruction and then placed many of their thoughts about other categorical aspects of their work around this top heavy and powerful category. Other teachers placed students' engagement in the curriculum and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

instruction as the focal point and then thought about how all the other categories contributed to student engagement. Still other teachers made more continuum-based models to make thematic sense of the categories. For example, on one end of the spectrum there are decisions being made for teachers, decisions where teachers had less control and on the other end of the spectrum, places in curriculum and instruction where teachers had more control. I used these perspectives to enhance and confirm my thematic model was AN appropriate model as opposed THE appropriate model.

Further Analysis: Using Theoretical Frameworks of Pedagogy

Once I had solidified a useful organization of the categories situated with research and with practical considerations for teachers' everyday realities, I felt as if it was an opportunity to ask more pointed analytical questions. I interpreted these thematic models of the categories and their dimensions using the following question: *How are teachers' decisions linked to the foundations of standardized or contextualized pedagogical frameworks?* In order to answer this question, I needed to look at two significant aspects of the contextual framework -- the foundations of standardized pedagogies and the foundations of contextualized pedagogies. The two pedagogical frameworks are represented in *Appendix Five: Theoretical Pedagogy Table 1. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects of Standardized Pedagogy & Theoretical Pedagogy Table 3. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects of Contextualized Pedagogy*. These tables contain ideological, theoretical, and practical aspects associated with the foundations of standardized and contextualized pedagogies. These frameworks were developed from a synthesis of the literature on research associated with the standardization and contextualization of curriculum and instruction in public schools and in relation to education reform.

Theoretical Table 1. Foundational Aspects of Standardized Pedagogy.

Pedagogy	Ideological Constructs	Theoretical Orientations	Practical Aspects
<i>Standardized</i>	<p>The ideological constructs of standardized pedagogies include a common, Western knowledge base, market driven distribution of resources based in meritocracy arrived at through the provision of “equal” and “quality” inputs. They are also based in creating a “good” citizen, an American identity, and include undertones of Western ideals of development and private ownership over one’s life as the foundation of enlightened thinking. Standardized pedagogies are derived from Neoliberal ideological orientations in order to improve the academic performance of students measured to be underperforming. Western rationality attempts to control factors of input to reach specific goals of capital development and individual economic liberty and competition.</p>	<p>Standardized pedagogies are associated with “cookie-cutter”, “data-driven”, “research-based”, “scripted”, and “prescriptive” approaches to teaching and learning. Every student should receive the same education, regardless of their context. Uniformity is the only fair way to provide equal opportunity for fair evaluation and a fair judgement. This is based in a rational approach to achieving equalized opportunity by prescribing specific outcomes, standardizing inputs of instruction and curriculum, and measuring performance by standardized assessments.</p>	<p>Standardized approaches often dictate content, materials, pace, instructional strategies, and perhaps most powerfully, the assessments to measure learning. Approaches that utilize standardized instructional mechanisms, such as common purpose, common objectives or standards, prescriptive outcomes, scripted curriculum, data teams and mining, instructional frameworks, “high stakes” assessments, and teacher evaluation.</p>

Theoretical Table 3. Foundational Aspects Within Contextualized Pedagogies

Pedagogy	Ideological construct	Theoretical Orientation	Practical Aspects
<i>Culture Based Pedagogy</i>	Recognition of students lived experience including: perspectives, values, norms, language, actions, knowledge, and community as a meaningful	Learning is a social process that takes place in relationship to sociocultural contexts. Learning is making sense of the social world through authentic experiences and the co-construction of meaning with other social members of the community.	Learning begins with student prior knowledge and experiences from home and community. Learning is linked to language, social norms and values present in students' lives. Learning takes place with members of families and community. Planning is done in consultation with community members. Opportunities are provided for students to apply knowledge in their authentic life worlds.
<i>Critical Pedagogy</i>	Students lived experience is situated within a social inequality and dominant social structures. The awareness of these structures in relationship to learning can provide opportunities for social justice and individual transformation.	Learning is an opportunity to confront social inequality, dominant and hegemonic social ideology and structures. Learning is an opportunity for individuals and communities to liberate their minds and life-worlds from objective, legitimate, positivist, and dehumanized constructions of truth.	Learning should be linked to larger sociopolitical realities found in the life of the student and community. Learning should be designed to develop critical understanding of social structures and social inequalities present in their lives, thereby leading engaged opportunities for emancipation.
<i>Place based Pedagogy</i>	Recognizes experiential learning connected to the ecological world develops relationships, empathy, and opportunity for mutual benefit and cultural and environmental sustainability.	Learning is an opportunity to develop relationships and understanding of student's social and ecological environments. Learning is an opportunity to examine the social and ecological issues present in the life world of the student.	Learning is multidisciplinary and experiential. Learning is linked to locations and social issues that exist in actual places. Learning is a link between the student and the community. Learning is explicitly tied to geography and ecology of the place in which students are learning.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

To think through the question of whether or not I can see connections between the dimensions and these frameworks of pedagogy, I used language and concepts from the foundations of pedagogy in comparison to the dimensions. I started in the structure-centered theme, making the assumption that language and concepts from the foundations of standardized pedagogies would be well represented across the dimensions in relationship to aspects of the standardized approach. Then, I looked into the teacher-centered theme, and finally, considered the learning-centered theme. Categorical dimensions of themes identified as linked to standardized pedagogy as represented in Appendix Four: Analytical Interpretations Table 20. Standardized Aspects of Thematic Dimensions & Table 21 Contextualized Aspects of Thematic Dimensions.

Standardized Dimensions of Teachers' Decisions

In my interpretations of teachers' decisions, I found multiple connections between teachers' decisions and the language and conceptual foundations of standardized pedagogy.

Analytical Interpretations Table 20. Standardized Aspects from Categorical Dimensions

<i>Aspect</i>	Mandates	Academic Skills	Assessments	Target Pop.
<i>Dimensions</i>	District-strategy	Common Core	Assessments	ELL
	Best-practices	Benchmarks	Data-Teams	SPED
	Publisher-materials	Scripted-targets	Student weakness	
	Scripted-curriculum	NGSS	SBAC	
	State mandates	HCPS		
		College Prep		
		Career Skills		
		Target- ELA		
		Target- Math		

TEACHERS DECISIONS

I looked specifically of the dimensions of the categories organized by themes in relationship to the standardized framework. I was specifically looking for evidence of ideological, theoretical, and practical aspects of standardized pedagogy as laid out in *Theoretical Pedagogy Table 1. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects of Standardized Pedagogy*. Generally speaking, I was looking for any language and conceptual connections to the mechanisms and foundations of linked to accountability reforms. For example, the critical dimensions of the themes included the following aspects of standardized pedagogy: *District-strategy, Best-practices, Publisher-materials, Scripted-curriculum, and State-mandates*. The critical dimensions of academic skills linked to standardized aspects included: *Common Core, Benchmarks, Scripted-targets, NGSS, HCPS, College-Prep skills, Career Skills, Target-ELA, and Target-Math, Assessments, Data-Teams, Students' weaknesses, SBAC tests*, as well as links between teachers' decisions and standardized pedagogical frameworks included both *ELL* and *SPED* special populations of students. I organized the categorical dimensions associated with standardized pedagogies into the following aspects, *mandates, academic skills, assessment-based, and target populations*. The critical dimensions of academic skills linked to *mandated* standardized aspects included: *Common Core, Benchmarks, Scripted-targets, NGSS, HCPS, College-Prep skills, Career Skills, Target- ELA, and Target- Math*. The critical dimensions of *assessments* as the basis of curriculum and instruction included: *Assessments, Data-Teams, Students' weaknesses, and SBAC tests*. Finally, the target population aspect of links between teachers' decisions and standardized pedagogical frameworks included both *ELL* and *SPED* special populations of students. Teachers explicitly referenced these student populations, and in some cases in relation to mandated policy. For example, two teachers from the same school noted,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Our school, 100% of the teachers have been Project GLAD trained. What you're going to see today are components of that training. It's an initiative that our complex area has decided to use because of our high ELL population. It's also good teaching practice. The strategies can be used with anybody. It just develops high level academic vocabulary. What you're going to see today is applying the high level academic vocabulary to a writing piece. (MARG; K; Science; instructional interview; dimension-*ELL*)

GLAD was mandated by the [local] Complex for the schools in our complex to use because, I guess, we have a high population of ELL students. It helps to address issues with language development. (MARG; 5th; Science; instructional interview; dimension-*ELL*)

As a whole, standardized aspects were easy to identify based on linkages to the language and conceptual foundations of accountability reform.

Contextualized Dimensions of Teachers' Decisions

Across teachers' decisions for curriculum and instruction, there was some indication connections between the foundations of contextualized pedagogies and teachers' decisions.

Analytical Interpretations Table 21. Contextualized Aspects from Categorical Dimensions

<i>Aspect</i>	Cultural-explicit	Cultural-general	Critical	Place-General
<i>Dimension</i>	CREDE Gender Issues Identity	Pop-culture Value of Literature	Humanization	Application Field-based Google Maps Real World Place Real World Scenario

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The language of contextualized pedagogies as put forth in *Theoretical Pedagogy Table 3. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects of Contextualized Pedagogy* focused on students' cultural backgrounds, socioeconomics, and ecologies. Culture is both specific and general term, depending on how the concept is defined. While in culture-based pedagogies, culture is explicitly aligned to a cultural-ethnic background, I also included a category for students' culture that may have not been explicitly aligned to a cultural-ethnic background, and more generally located in the cultural aspects of their lives in larger society. I named the aspects of contextualized pedagogy as *Cultural-explicit, Cultural-general, Critical, and Place-General*. I did not use places in the specific, because in most case, teachers did not refer to specific ecological locations in students' lives. Rather, they made general references to places in students' lives like restaurants or places that they have visited. There was not a large representation of this dimension in the research set.

The dimensions of the categories represented in the thematic model that I identified for *Cultural-explicit* were *CREDE, Gender Issues, and Identity development*. For example, one teacher noted,

Also, our school has a partnership with CREDE from UH. We're focusing on small group instruction as our powerful instructional practice. (MARG; 2nd; ELA; instructional interview; dimension-*CREDE*)

Given that CREDE teaching practices were specifically designed for working with students from Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian backgrounds, and these practices were being used in a school with a high percentage of Native Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian students, the mention of this program assumes students' culture factored into the reason for teachers' decisions, but it is not explicitly

TEACHERS DECISIONS

stated by the teachers as their reason. One teacher also referenced students' need to connect who they are with the text they were studying, in the case *To Kill a Mockingbird*,

For this particular one, our focus is actually our own experiences. I think that actually drives it home because it's not about anything else but what they feel and who they are. Actually, it's an adaptation of mine. I needed to have them, again, be more engaged, find the connection, very important. Technically, it was just for them to scan the laws just to get a general idea of a secular and primary resource. But I needed to get them more involved into the context of *To Kill a Mockingbird*, because there's so much emotion, human emotion, human reaction, and it's all real. (MARG; 9th; ELA; curriculum interview; dimension-*Value of Literature*)

For the aspect of contextualized pedagogy focused on *Critical* or the socioeconomic conditions of students' lives, one teacher mentioned *Humanization* within the setting of a Social Studies lesson. In the following excerpt from his interview, he makes a connection between students' lives and the texts,

It's interesting to me that they find them so shocking because of what their generation is exposed to. The pictures we show them is not even as bad as you would see on the news or a video game or anything like that, but yet, I think when they start to put it into context, and that's what we're trying to get here. These images, putting it into context for them that these are actually human beings. This is the result of conflict, whatever. It's interesting to me that they're still shocked by it because it's nothing they haven't seen before, but I think when they've ... They're just so used to going through life, maybe a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

little blindly, or just because that is the normal for them, they don't put it in the context of where it's coming from. (NT1; 8th; Social Studies; curriculum interview; dimension-*humanization*)

Similarly, for *Place-General*, the dimensions of teachers' decisions included: *Future Application*, *Field-based*, *Google Maps*, *Real World-Place*, and *Real World-Scenario*. Teachers in the place-based dimensions, were not explicitly mentioning locations of ecological or environmental significance as might be outlines within Place-based literatures. In this research set, teachers talked about things in more surface and general terms. For example,

That Google form is a third way to get information into the Google Maps. You import the data and then they'll import and then all the pins will pop up on their map. They're going to tri-color it, they'll see "places I've been," "places I want to go" and "places my classmates have been." It should be a fun way to introduce them to maps, to the world, to just opening their horizons. Maybe someone has been already to the different Polynesian Islands that we're trying to get at, so we can integrate all of that. (NT1; 7th; Social Studies; instructional interview; dimension-*Google Maps*)

Another teacher noted,

I figured that has no relevance to them, so I thought what we would do today is we would find ... I'm giving them a menu and they're going to choose what they want to eat, and it's from [local restaurant] because it's good stuff over there and they're going to find the tax; how much their meal would cost. I'm going to give them a coupon so they have to find a

TEACHERS DECISIONS

discount. Then they would figure out how much tip they would leave for their server. I wanted to put some relevance to what we've been learning. (NT1; 6th; Math; instructional interview; dimension-*Real World Place*)

Theoretical Interpretations and Teacher Reflexivity

Language and concepts associated with teachers' decisions appear to be linked to aspects of standardized and contextualized pedagogy. At first glance, and when considering the frequency of decisions, there appears to be many more dimensions of standardized pedagogy linked to interpretations of teachers' decisions in this set of teachers. All of the standardized dimensions of teachers' decisions came from the *Structure-centered* or *Teacher-centered* themes located in the model. Overall, the standardized aspects did not appear to be located near the more learning-centered categories of teachers' work. Rather, contextualized aspects of pedagogy were significantly less represented in the dimensions of categories represented in the thematic model. The majority of these came from the opposite end of the model from standardized aspects and were generally located in the *student-centered* theme in the continuum.

Teachers who participated in the reflexive sessions acknowledged that the standardized and contextualized frameworks appeared to be relevant to what they knew about pedagogy. Yet, they also noted a greater familiarity with the dimensions of standardized approaches to pedagogy associated with accountability reform, as opposed to language and concepts at the foundations of culture-based, critical, and place based contextualized pedagogies. For example, no teachers asked for explanations about the standardized mechanisms of goals, outcomes, curriculums, or tests, but some teachers asked questions about how I was defining culture based, what was critical pedagogy, and what are some of the nuances associated with place based

TEACHERS DECISIONS

pedagogy. One teachers asked, “Is mentioning a restaurant place based pedagogy?” My answer was, kind of, though perhaps that is not the main focus of the literature on place-based education.

Further Analysis: Critical Questions Among Diverse and Marginalized Context

Identifying theoretical dimensions of both standardized and contextualized pedagogies provided on opportunity to ask more critical questions of the data. I wanted to know more about whether education reform appears to target diverse and marginalized students in the context of this research, and how the dimensions might differ across the different contexts of Non-Title I, Title I, or marginalized. In particular, I wanted to see if there was any indication that standardized pedagogies appeared to central in any of the contexts of the study. I used the following research question to guide my thinking at this stage of the analysis: *Do standardized and contextualized aspects of pedagogy located in teachers’ decisions differ among the various lessons in Title I, Non-Title I, and marginalized contexts?* I was able to represent this data in *Analytical Interpretations Tables 22.-25.*

Analytical Interpretations Table 22. Standardized and Contextualized in Non-Title I

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	12	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	14	Cultural-general	2
Standardized assessment	11	Critical	1
Target populations	1	Place-general	5
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>38</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>8</i>

I found that number of codes from the 22 lessons and 44 interviews in the non-Title I context that are associated with aspects from the foundations of standardized pedagogies. It also appears that limited amounts of unique codes are associated with the foundations of culture-based, critical, and place-based pedagogies in the non-Title I context.

Analytical Interpretations Table 23. Standardized and Contextualized in Title I

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	18	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	28	Cultural-general	4
Standardized assessment	10	Critical	0
Target populations	3	Place-general	2
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>6</i>

I found that number of codes from the 24 lessons and 48 interviews in the Title I contexts that are associated with aspects from the foundations of standardized pedagogies. It also appears that limited amounts of unique codes are associated with the foundations of culture-based, critical, and place-based pedagogies in the non-Title I context.

Analytical Interpretations Table 24. Standardized and Contextualized in Marginalized

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	15	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	22	Cultural-general	3
Standardized assessment	8	Critical	0
Target populations	3	Place-general	2
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>5</i>

I found that number of codes from the 19 lessons and 36 interviews in the Title I-marginalized contexts (those schools with over 60% FRL and over 60% underrepresented ethnic groups) that are associated with aspects from the foundations of standardized pedagogies. It also appears that limited amounts of unique codes are associated with the foundations of culture-based, critical, and place-based pedagogies in the non-Title I context.

Analytical Interpretations Table 25. Standardized and Contextualized Across Context

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	30	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	42	Cultural-general	6
Standardized assessment	21	Critical	1
Target populations	4	Place-general	7
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>97</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>14</i>

Overall, across all lessons and interviews, there was significantly more indications for standardized aspects of pedagogies in teachers' decision-making than contextualized aspects.

Discussion of the Critical Findings

Abductive logic provided the most significant finding related to whether standardized and contextualized aspects of pedagogy looked different across the various contexts. In truth, the critical question revealed more about what was absent in the data. I did not find the appearance of significant or meaningful contextual aspects of students' lives in teachers' decision making. While I had originally wanted to know more about how the linkages between teachers' decisions and the pedagogies of reform might have differed within Common Core and Universal Curriculum subject areas, and again among Title I, Non-Title I, and Marginalized contexts, I could not. More analysis of these teacher interviews would result in the same conclusions, that regardless of context or subject area, it appeared that teachers shared very limited amounts of contextual aspects of students' lives in their decision-making processes on curriculum and instruction.

Further Analysis of a Critical Point

This following section focuses on the findings as perceived by teachers who participated in the reflexive exercises to examine the accuracy and quality of my analysis. This section includes the teachers' narratives on a critical point -- the absence of references to meaningful contextual aspects of students' lives (cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological) in teachers' decisions on classroom curriculum and instruction. The following narratives written by teachers focused on the following question: *Why do you think contextualization plays a limited role in teachers' decision-making process?* Teachers responded in the following ways when asked why they felt teachers did not use contextualized aspects of students' lives in their decision-making processes.

Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 1

Contextualization is not taught in teacher prep programs that are run in the state. For example, I was in an MEd program at [the university] that didn't expose me to or attempt to teach me any aspects of the Hawaiian culture in general, let alone place any expectation on me as a teacher to include texts that my students would best relate to in my curriculum. As someone not born and raised here, I (as I have only recently reflected) was resistant to introduce a topic/text that I was completely unfamiliar with and that my students were not. And it wasn't due to a need to know everything (that doesn't vibe with my training in Philosophy 4 Children!), but rather my fear of doing a disservice to the community I now found myself in. Only now do I realize that the disservice was in not contextualizing the content to their culture. Only now do I realize that missed opportunities to contextualize context in relation to their place, their culture, and that it significantly helps students in their learning process but also in dealing with challenges

TEACHERS DECISIONS

that exist in their lives and communities. Upon further reflection, like myself, many teachers are from the mainland and are not equipped with the ability to bring in contextualized aspects beyond the most basic/general, but we are also dealing with significant amount of external pressures outside of our control, and outside of the immediacy of our classrooms and students, including: testing, accreditation, etc.

Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 2

I believe that teachers are conditioned to talk about their experiences in the classroom by framing them around mandates (as proof that they are in compliance with such mandates). Talking too much about how you are contextualizing content for your students admits, to a certain extent, that you aren't applying standardized pedagogy that may or may not be mandated. The assumption is that you can't do both well but perhaps this is not true.

Changing the conversation around how teachers are perceived when they make professional judgments would help determine just how much contextualizing is happening. Or, alternatively, instead of taking data from teachers directly, observing them over a period of time, collecting data from student interviews, may reveal that more contextualizing is happening more frequently than we might otherwise be able to tell.

Overall, I think it's less that teachers aren't contextualizing and more that they aren't praised for doing so because of the false assumption that it is not part of learning. When teachers effectively contextualize to benefit student learning it is something that is difficult to teach, standardize, and replicated across contexts. Contextualization comes from building relationships, establishing a collaborative community, practice, comfort with the standards and skills, and a certain level of professional autonomy.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

I believe that it is easier to quantify standardized aspects as we saw from doing the exercise ourselves. Standardized aspects tend to be more black and White and there is a lot of gray area in contextualized aspects. This could make one side easier to talk about than others. As a teacher, I felt like I was being told (indirectly) that context is only important insofar as it serves standardized aspects. Education has been so institutionalized that teachers don't even feel the freedom to talk freely about how they provide context, value, and professional discretion to their students. When every PD and admin led training revolves around testing, it is hard to feel like you can focus on other aspects even if it means higher learner outcomes. Everything said, it makes me think that teacher humility plays a factor in how teachers talk about their decisions as well.

Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 3

Administration emphasizes standards more within our PD's, mentorships, and instructional practices rather than the importance of contextualization. For the several years I have been a teacher, a majority of PD that I have participated in has been on unpacking standards, reading data that are standards based, and how to use the framework of Common Core to guide instruction. I see this as the "meat and potatoes" of the professional learning lessons given to teachers and what a majority of the staff meetings and Professional Learning Communities that I experienced were both focused on and further discussed. I feel that only a sprinkle of PD's that were given to me emphasized the importance of contextualization. If standards are the "meat and potatoes", then I would compare contextualization importance to the cherry on top of the sundae. Emphasis on standards are drilled within the teaching industry. As a teacher, we do know that contextualization is important and that it is a best practice, but when it

TEACHERS DECISIONS

comes down to why we are not applying it on a regular basis is because this practice is not dominating our educational conversations, PDs, etc.

It would be interesting to take the look at how much of our professional conversation is based on standards talk and how much is about contextualization within our school systems by comparing how often each topic is addressed in PD's, teachers' professional conversations, or in department meetings. My guess is that standards would be highly addressed is correlated to why we are seeing the emphasis in our classrooms.

Narrative on Critical Point - Teacher-participant 4

There is little contextualization in our classroom for one big reason: test scores determine the success of a school. And for that reason, our instructional leaders must be able to provide that data in order to prove a school's progress. Our energies are used to analyze numbers and not students. The numbers are not the best way of informing a conversation and to show that there are some teachers who are able to incorporate contextualization in their classroom within the constraints of mandates. Generally, there is that need to assess our students to gauge where they are so we can help them get to where they need to go, but the question is how often and how many assessments are needed to get that data?

Barriers to Contextualization as Expressed Through Teacher Narratives

Barriers with regards to policy. In their narratives, it appears that teachers are focusing on the narrowing power of pedagogical approaches and foundational ideas linked to federal education policy and accountability reforms. The teachers speak directly to these aspects when they mention:

TEACHERS DECISIONS

There is little contextualization in our classroom for one big reason: test scores determine the success of a school. And for that reason, our instructional leaders must be able to provide that data in order to prove a school's progress. Our energies are used to analyze numbers and not students. There is that need to assess our students to gauge where they are so we can help them get to where they need to go, but the question is how often and how many assessments are needed to get that data? (Teacher-participant 4)

We are dealing with significant amount of external pressures outside of our control, and outside of the immediacy of our classrooms and students, including: testing, accreditation, etc. (*Teacher-participant 1*)

I believe that teachers are conditioned to talk about their experiences in the classroom by framing them around mandates as proof that they are in compliance with such mandates. (*Teacher-participant 2*)

Barriers with regards to teacher knowledge of community. Teachers note the relationship between the teacher, the school, and the community, as it contributes to the teachers' knowledge about students' lives, teachers shared that,

Upon further reflection, like myself, many teachers are from the mainland and are not equipped with the ability to bring in contextualized aspects beyond the most basic/general. Only now do I realize that the disservice was in not contextualizing the content to their culture. Only now do I realize that missed opportunities to contextualize context in relation to their place, their culture, and that it significantly helps students in their learning process but also in dealing with challenges that exist in their lives and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

communities. *(Teacher- participant 1)*

When teachers effectively contextualize to benefit student-learning is not something that can be taught and standardized and replicated. It comes from building relationships, establishing a collaborative community, practice, comfort with the standards and skills, and a certain level of professional autonomy. *(Teacher-participant 2)*

Barriers influenced by teacher preparation and professional learning. Finally, to suggest that there may be a disconnect between theory and practice in teacher preparation and professional learning, teachers shared that:

...in ways that appeared to support what the literature on contextualized pedagogies perceives are some of the more prevalent reasons why barriers to contextualization of knowledge in the classroom exist, or are not talked about or shared by teachers in interviews about their curriculum and instruction, and especially not interviews that are being recorded and situated within a larger study of effective teaching practices.

Contextualization is not taught in teacher prep programs that are run in the state. For example, I was in an MEd program at [the university] that didn't expose me to or attempt to teach me any aspects of the Hawaiian culture in general, let alone place any expectation on me as a teacher to include texts that my students would best relate to in my curriculum. *(Teacher-participant 1)*

Education has been so institutionalized that teachers don't even feel the freedom to talk freely about how they provide context, value, and professional discretion to their students. When every PD and admin led training revolves around testing, it is hard to feel like you can focus on other aspects even if it means higher learner outcomes.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Administration emphasizes standards within our PD's, mentorships, and instructional practices rather than contextualization. In the several years, I have been a teacher, a majority of PD has been on unpacking standards, reading data that are standards-based, and how to use the framework of Common Core to guide instruction. (*Teacher-participant 2*)

CHAPTER 10: IMPLICATIONS AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

No set of intellectual and professional questions is as important to address, more perplexing to answer, or more anguishing to confront than those dealing with the purposes and goals of education.

(Purpel & McLaurin, 1989, p. 123)

Our schools are places where powerful actors dominantly shape the schooling process, creates the opportunity to give voice to people who have been silenced by their exclusion from institutional power (Freire & Shor, 1987; Gay, 1995; Kaomea, 2003; Kincheloe, 2004). This study allows for the development of a critical conversation from teachers' perspective about the role of power, pedagogy, and context in the construction of teachers' work. According to Freire (1970), transparency that places the ideological, theoretical, and practical foundations of education in critical spaces emboldens dialogue. Critical dialogue about teaching offers space to talk about dimensions of power and agency in order to create authentic standing and contextual arguments when considering the what, how, and why questions that surround the educational experiences in diverse and marginalized spaces. (Freire, 2000; Gay, 1995; Hickling-Hudson et al., 2004; Ivison, et al., 2000; Kaomea, 2003; Kana'iaupuni & Kawai'ae'a, 2008; Macedo, 1999; McLaren, 2002; Merriam, 1928; Ogbu, 1990; Scribner & Cole, 1973; Smith, 1999). In this chapter I discuss the findings within the larger contextual framework alluded to by teachers within their critical narratives, revisiting the broader significance, the implications of the research along these points, the quality and limitations of my interpretations, as well the opportunities for future study.

Barriers to Contextualization as Presented in Literature

The literature on education reform is consistent with the teachers' conversation about how powerful reforms have narrowed teachers work, the ways in which teachers' knowledge of community can influence their ability to provide context-based curriculum and instruction, and how this might be the case because teacher preparation programs do not appear to be talking about the value of students' lives or the need for contextualized instruction. The teachers conversation to barriers to contextualization include the aspects of powerful federal education policy and accountability reforms which drive the work of schools and narrow teachers' decisions and actions by using standardized pedagogical approaches. (Apple, 1979; Ball, 1995, 2003; Bartolome, 1994; Berliner, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2015; Hargraves, 1994; Kincheloe & Pinar, 1991; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Windschitl, 2002; Wyatt, 2009). These teachers are also referencing barriers to contextualization such as the relationship between the teacher, the school, and the community and how teachers' knowledge about students' lives is an important part of the educational process, in particular as a way to challenge the overreach of federal accountability reforms. (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Delpit, 2012; Gay, 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2006; Kaomea, 2003; Kawakami, 2004; Kaiwi, 2006; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Moll et al., 1992; Penuel et al., 2007; Sleeter, 2008; Tharp et al., 2000; Wyatt; 2015; Yamauchi, 1993; Yamauchi et al., 1996; Yamauchi, 2003). Furthermore, they have identified that gaps in professional learning for pre-service and in-service teachers. (Ellsworth, 1989; Darling Hammond, 1997; Hargraves, 1984; Gay, 1995, 2013; Sarroub & Quadros, 2014; Shields, 2012; Sleeter, 2008; Wyatt, 2009, 2015)

Implications

A study on how policy, pedagogy, and context influences classroom practice is meaningful as social and educational inequality persists for culturally diverse and economically marginalized groups. This study illuminates that teachers are talking about the ways in which recent federal government education policy initiatives have focused explicitly on creating a contemporary push for accountability resulting in the implementation of a standardized approach to pedagogy which could have the potential to exacerbate social and educational inequality (Bien, 2013; Biesta, 2009; Diamond, 2007). As the frame and evidence suggests, this inquiry supports critical view of reform directives as they have singled out teachers' work, particularly curriculum and instruction, as an important controllable factor in the achieving what is described as the equalized provision of quality instruction across all school contexts.

This research is meaningful because of unique nature of the research context, the power of policy within the colonial context of Hawaii, and the value of contextualized instruction in students learning, and in particular with students who have historically experienced significant marginalization and disconnect within schools as public and governmental institutions.

Education Policy and Contextualization

Exploring teacher's decisions from the critical perspective was especially meaningful as recent federal education policy has intentionally targeted diverse and marginalized students and have the potential to maintain the status quo in educational inequity. Changes have come by means of standardized educational mechanisms designed to control for teacher quality. These reforms have reoriented the nature of the educational environment by explicitly and discursively conscripting teacher professional autonomy and de-contextualizing curriculum and instruction in ways that may negatively impact student learning. Reforms are such that teachers are directed to

TEACHERS DECISIONS

think and act in particular ways. Teachers are targeted because their work in curriculum and instruction is seen as the single most important variable that can be controlled for as government institutions push for increases in student's academic performance as measured by standardized assessments. Teachers are at times mandated to use standardized educational mechanisms such as common objectives, scripted curriculums, "best" practices, standardized assessments, data based instructional decisions, and high stakes testing in their classrooms. These changes have resulted in a narrow construction of the purpose of education and devalue the role of the teacher in the process of teaching and learning (Goodson, 2014).

It has been argued that mechanisms associated with accountability reform have resulted in a techno-rational, decontextualized, myopic, and outcomes based focus in education. As a result, the essential contextual connections between a student's lived circumstance and the teacher's curriculum and instruction are left behind. This is particularly problematic recognizing that scholarship on pedagogy and learning suggests that curriculum and instruction founded on contextualized pedagogies creates essential connections for students is necessary for learning. Contextualized practices, linked to students' cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological worlds, contribute to increased student engagement, academic performance, and authentic social transformation in students' lives. Increased learning, and the resultant social transformations, are especially meaningful in contexts where dominant ideologies, systems, and structures have long been responsible for perpetuating social inequality and continued marginalization. This understanding creates an opportunity for dialogue and learning about the pedagogical foundation that are used, in particular those pedagogies with the possibility to transform dominant systems of education in diverse and marginalized contexts. A transformation towards contextualized pedagogies could address historical legacies of cultural oppression, alleviate stress of

TEACHERS DECISIONS

socioeconomic disadvantage, and value the meaningful cultural, social, and ecological environments in students' lives.

This study, and its critical orientation, takes a stand that acknowledges standardized pedagogy in diverse and marginalized contexts should be critiqued. Domi-righteous ideological and ontological perspectives, when coupled with trans-reductionary educational mechanisms such as standardizing pedagogy, demand critical exploration. In education, and specifically in terms of accountability reform, the problem of social inequity is constructed in such a way that blames parents, communities, teachers, and students (Ravitch, 2013). It is important to problematize any social policy that takes a deficit oriented stance towards the intended recipients. Interrogation of teacher work in relation to meaningful social contexts allows us to see more critical connections between the powerful policy prescribed to support diverse and marginalized students and localized teachers' decisions (Apple, 1985; Luke, 1995; Wexler, Martusewicz & Kern, 1987). Arriving at texts generated from qualitative research on teachers talking about their decisions of their curriculum and instruction in relationship to students' lives illuminates some of the explicit and latent influences on their work.

The results of this study implore us to be more explicit about federal education policy and accountability reforms, especially the ways in which they may narrow teachers' work in such a way that it becomes disconnected from students' lives. These disconnects are argued to be one of the challenges to learning, especially for students from diverse and marginalized backgrounds. In order to do this, we need to create space for mediation and confrontation of policy directives at the school and local level. Teachers who are from the community or knowledgeable about the community and can clearly identify the cultural, socioeconomic and ecological foundations of the community knowledge base should audit the federal and state directives to ensure that they

TEACHERS DECISIONS

are not contributing to assimilationist policies or increased structural inequities. Inasmuch, we should be true to our school missions which often acknowledge students as humans with wonderful and diverse cultural histories and knowledges. We should not allow the humanity of our students to be usurped by the scientific and control theories of education policy. This can be accomplished by valuing and talking with our teachers, by respecting them as autonomous, thoughtful, knowledge, and caring human beings who have committed to supporting learning in our communities. I feel as if that if we can give them this respect, we can ask teachers to critically address whether or not we (as a whole) are acting in such ways that are supporting continued oppression of marginalized groups through institutional and structural inequities. Schools are not supposed to be institutions of domination, regardless whether or not they were designed that way or have a long historical record of doing just that.

New federal policy is shifting and changing towards local control, but sometimes only in rhetorical ways. I am not certain whether or not the new Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), as an extension of the original Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), can address the issues that I confront here in this research. I would say that I do not see any evidence in the new federal policy that reflects a conscientious drive to increase contextualized instruction in the classroom. In fact, I see continued rhetoric about states choosing to participate in accountability regimes, at federal, state, or local levels.

Teachers' Knowledge and Contextualization

Hawai'i is so culturally, socioeconomically, and ecologically unique that the lack of context is frustrating. Contextualization of instruction and the resultant pedagogies that emerge appear to be gaining steam across the U.S. as teachers and scholars are more appropriately confront the questionable foundations of education policy. Furthermore, exploring teachers'

TEACHERS DECISIONS

decisions from these contexts leads to a better understanding of questions about which pedagogical and teaching practices are used by teachers (Comber & Nixon, 2009; Diamond, 2007). Not only do we know more about the theoretical aspects that I covered in the later analyses, but further analyzing the interpretations of teachers' decisions can help educators have a better understanding of the dynamic interplay between teachers acting as autonomous professionals within imposition from larger more powerful social contexts (Comber & Nixon, 2009). professional learning. We see teachers who want to talk about it and learn about it. We continue to see people addressing these aspects of Hawai'i in teaching and we want them to share proudly and widely.

Furthermore, valuing teacher talk and acknowledging the broader social connections that exist in relationship to their work permits scholars, teacher-educators, and students to develop a more holistic picture of how teachers operate in the day-to-day context in the classroom and what might influence those operations. Analysis, in relationship to broader contexts of reform, pedagogy, diversity, and marginalization, allows for an opportunity to engage with the social foundations of teacher work. We need a deeper understanding of the complexity of education and teaching as a mediated social process in which powerful entities and meaningful contexts interact in complex ways. Engaging in dialogue about the realities that shape teaching and student's learning empowers us to see through the powerful veil constructed by politics, policy, and the naive rhetoric supporting the common good.

The results of this study implore us to make sure to value local knowledge and experiences in our classrooms and use them at the foundation of our curriculum and instruction because these contextual aspects of students' lives are the foundation of learning. In order to do this we need to create deeper relationships between the teacher and students' lives. We need

TEACHERS DECISIONS

teachers to want to know their students beyond an academic level. We need them to understand students on a cultural level. While this can be difficult when the teacher's ethnicity and background is different from that of the students, when you are a teacher in someone else's community, you are responsible for making sure that you are not imposing your values on that community unknowingly or in an oppressive way. In this way, and once again, we need to ask teachers to critically address their position in supporting institutional and structural inequities. We need to encourage this by respecting our teaching, communicating with them, and trusting in them to make the professional decisions.

The question around which pedagogies appear, or should be, at the foundation of teachers' curriculum and instruction is particularly relevant due to the pervasiveness of accountability reforms and standardized pedagogies as the most appropriate to support learners in diverse and marginalized contexts. As Shields (2012) notes, "some educators have never reflected on the hegemonic roots of educational norms, policies, curriculum, or accountability procedures that they implement, support, and perpetuate" (p. 4). Inevitably though, teachers must decide on what curriculum and instruction they choose and construct their own perceptions about its relevance to students' lives. As educators, teachers exist as intermediaries between sociocultural spaces, student's lived reality, knowledge production, and the powerful desires of federal and local governmental institutions. As professionals responsible for this social process, teachers have diverse reasons for why they act and how they think about their work. Teachers' decisions are informed by a variety of experiences, knowledge, education, training, as well as institutional and policy directives. While it has always been the case that teacher's work has been influenced by the broad scope of self, profession, students, school, and society, recently, ideology, and policy, contemporary educational mechanisms associated with accountability

TEACHERS DECISIONS

reform have complicated how teachers construct meaning around their curriculum and instruction.

We need teachers to honor Hawaii's uniqueness. We need teachers to confront Hawai'i's colonial past that continues to rear old, and develop new, challenges for students, and particularly Native Hawaiian students. Hawaiians, and other marginalized groups, experience lower levels of educational attainment, and resultant poverty, at rates higher than other ethnic groups. Could it be because the system is still colonial in its ideology, theory, and practice? It certainly could be argued to appear that way. The educational component of society and power is problematic because other people are making decisions for Native Hawaiians about their land and resources. While we all currently share this space, we all have a serious responsibility to the original inhabitants of this land whom without, we would not survive and prosper. We have a serious responsibility to confront histories that have erased people's lives, languages, cultures, and knowledges.

Teacher Preparation and Contextualization

Some of these issues that are acknowledged can be addressed by educational institutions. But, this is a challenge when we know that the institutional ideologies, theories, and practices may contain aspects of colonial roots. We need local students, local teachers, local teacher educators, local consultants and local cultural experts to be brokers between the community and the policies and practices in traditional public schools. We need to invest in "Grow Our Own" models where community members who are interested in becoming teachers are able to so, and are valued by the system for which they would work. These local teachers can present the opportunity to address the disconnect between the students and the curriculum and instruction.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In order to do that, we need to take a good look at ourselves as the teacher preparation pipeline. We need to address what I perceive to be a disconnect between theory, teacher preparation, and practice. While we have significant research across the university on aspects of colonization and local cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological issues, we are unable to communicate this to our students and future teachers. We reserve this knowledge for the individuals who create it and use it in both public and private ventures, but we do not share this knowledge democratically. We need to set up opportunities for teachers to learn more about the contextual aspects of students' lives so they can do the work of asking themselves whether or not they are participating in creating or solidifying institutional or structural inequities.

Broader Conclusions

While the realization that contextual aspects of students' lives do not appear to factor into teachers decision-making, and this might be because of powerful education policy, teachers lack of relationship with the communities in which they teach, or their lack of quality preparation which acknowledges cultural, socioeconomic and ecological foundations of learning, these are merely aspects of much larger conversations that have been taking place in critical communities for some time. These conversations include reforming the dominant narrative in which education should be for standardized outputs that lead to economic liberty and global domination of one nation-state. We can do this by explicitly confronting the ways in which policy operates discursively to control our minds and the minds of our teachers. Furthermore, we need to address the naïve construction of schools as merely good places. This includes good grades as good things, good test results as the end-all-be-all, and college and a good job as the singular defining characteristics of success.

Reforming the Dominant Narrative

TEACHERS DECISIONS

This research supports an exploration of ideas and practices that leads to social justice for all groups, and in particular, our most marginalized groups. And, recognizing that there are multiple approaches and purposes to the education being provided to students across the USA, educators and scholars have a responsibility to find out what educational purposes, rationales, and mechanisms are most appropriate for diverse and marginalized learners. A change of perspective on the essentializing notion of “school as a good thing”, coupled with an examination of the relationship between education policy and classroom practice allows for the creation of critical space that is attuned to historical and contemporary realities faced by diverse and marginalized groups, many of whom have experienced schools as institutions that lack essential and appropriate social and cultural connections between educational discourse and student lives. Specifically, connections between educational policy and classroom practice should be brought to light in order to facilitate a dialogue on the purposes of education that drive classroom discourse (Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002). This study seeks to create dialogic space by expanding the conversation beyond standardized pedagogical approaches and towards relevant curriculum to support diverse and marginalized learners.

This conversation is not aimed at exposing a narrative that this or that education policy is “bad” or tells a narrative that schools and teachers as destructive, but rather as educators and scholars, we have a professional and social responsibility to remain critical of education and schooling that is not in the best interest of all students and the communities that they come from (Counts, 1932). As scholars and researchers, it is essential that we explore how policy becomes constructed, implemented, and whether or not reform outcomes align to their goals of creating equitable educational opportunities rather than continuing to reinforce social structures that reproduce inequality (Counts, 1932; Darling-Hammond, 2007; Hursh, 2007; Karen, 2005). We

TEACHERS DECISIONS

should be concerned about schooling that lacks the necessary connections, and runs the risk of serving as an institution that reinforce and reproduce social, economic, and cultural inequalities and marginalization. (Apple, 2001; Apple & Weis, 1983; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 2007; Gay, 1995; Hursh, 2007; Kana'iaupuni & Ishibashi, 2003; Karen, 2005; Kumashiro, 2000; Vogt et al., 1987).

Reproduction of inequalities by public institutions is an issue of social justice. This is a public problem for those people who are responsible for education policy and its implementation. And, while there is no magic pill, no one size fits all solution, we must continue to explore dominant and alternative pedagogies by openly questioning each approaches origin, rhetoric, practices, and expected outcomes. Research should consider both the context of creation and context of implementation; studying both the origins of educational discourse in relationship to the context of the students and communities it serves, as well as, how policy is performing in places where it is implemented. Additionally, we must interrogate the practice and mechanisms used in its implementation, and explore the results in regards to its promises and purposes as well as their alignment to the values of the communities in which it serves. This is even more important when we consider groups of students who have experienced schools within a history of marginalization. This is because research suggests that authentically and contextual bound educational practices that consider the lived context of the students are more effective in creating academic success (Wyatt, 2009). In many cases, these alternative pedagogies have emerged in light of past historical and colonial wrongdoings as an opportunity to provide students with a more just, authentic, and relative education (Gay, 2000; Gruenewald & Smith, 2014; Ladson-Billings, 1992, 1995; Sleeter & Cornbleth, 2011; Tharp et al., 2000).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In light of alternative pedagogies that have been developed and implemented in diverse and marginalized contexts and proven to be successful, we must ensure diverse perspectives. When teachers are operating in communities that lack social, cultural, political, and economic capital and power, it is important to interrogate the origins of reform and the role it plays in teacher practice, because historically these groups have been excluded from institutional power and the practices that are implemented and outcomes achieved may not be constructed in alignment with the values of the community (Fear-Segal, 2006; Kaomea, 2003; Kincheloe, 2004; Maaka, 2005).

Confronting Discursive Power

The notion of ‘discursive practice’, to use Michel Foucault’s (1979) phrase, provides the key to disrupting these binaries. Discourse is not so much a structure as an economy. It circulates throughout various sites in the public arena, playing a formative role in the organization of institutions as rituals of power and in the interpretation of what happens in institutions. Thus, every discourse is also a practice, inextricably linked to micro-technologies of control, management and surveillance— such as high-stakes testing, or teacher-proof curriculum materials. (Carlson, 2005, p. 25)

While the values at the foundation of the ideology, as constructed by concepts and communicated by language, appears explicit in this definition, as it permeates social structures, it becomes encoded in the policy, procedures, and practices associated with contemporary reform, and at times it becomes unnoticeable (Chomsky, 1987; Gordon & Whitty, 1997; Burch, 2009; Uljens, 2007). This highly rational ideology operates beneath a mask and as a powerful matrix of language and actions, constituting a discourse of power. Its power influences the individual. The masking happens in the transition from a foundational political rhetoric to an institutional

TEACHERS DECISIONS

approach. Because of this layering, once explicit neoliberal ideas become distorted. Scholars claim that this happens as these move through a transformation from the level of political rhetoric and policy into the more institutional level of procedures (Burch, 2009). As this transition occurs, it changes the explicitness of the language. I argue that the shrouding begins as ideology morphs into “good sense” political rhetoric touting Neoliberal pedagogy ability to deliver fairness, equality, opportunity, and success for all students. The dominant pedagogy has claimed to be a cure-all for a public educational system education in a crisis of injustice and inequality (A Nation Accountable, 2008; ESEA, 1964; A Nation at Risk, 1983; NCLB, 2002). The reform rhetoric is associated with language of social good and common sense. As such, it becomes easily adopted in the political process, and eventually finds a way to embed in policy at the state and federal level. All of these efforts are directed at changing the education of our most diverse and marginalized populations (Ball, 1994; Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001; Lipman, 2006). In this way, this rhetoric acts as an advocacy tool for the implementation of Neoliberal policies. The problem rests in the fact that it is not explicitly constructed in the same ideological language as it embeds. But, we can argue that it still holds the original ideology.

While the values at the foundation of the ideology, as constructed by concepts and communicated by language, appears explicit in this definition, as it permeates social structures, it becomes encoded in the policy, procedures, and practices associated with contemporary reform, and at times it becomes unnoticeable (Burch, 2009; Chomsky, 1987; Gordon & Whitty, 1997; Uljens, 2007). Additionally, critics argue that Neoliberalism operates within this discursive web of discourse constituted by the political rhetoric, policy, and the procedural “second layers of policy” (Burch, 2009). In particular, as language changes from the explicit ideology, through the rhetoric of neoliberal politics, and into structural policy and institutional procedures, it becomes

TEACHERS DECISIONS

more technical. Once explicit policy language becomes the language of school reform experts and educational scientists (Chibulka & Boyd, 2003; Giroux, 1992; Spring, 2008). But again, while the language from one level to the next appears different, the techno-rational language remains representative the larger web of neoliberal ideology. It remains links because of its relationship to the matrix of power (Bartolome, 1994; Burch, 2009). Scholars have argued that this veil “hides from view” the true aims of Neoliberalism in education policy, and that this blurring allows for the rationality to operate, perpetuate, and dominate without public and political dissent (Burch, 2009; Harvey, 2005).

Education as Simply a “Good” Thing

We live in an era when few educational professionals, and even fewer citizens, would argue that education and schooling is a “bad” thing (Counts, 1932). Generally speaking, education is widely valued as an opportunity leading to individual success and liberty, as well as the transformation and alleviation of social ills. Because of this, schools are often naively perceived to have the omnipotent power of liberation, social amelioration, enlightenment, and ability to create socially and economically efficient progress for all (Apple & Weis, 1983; Counts, 1932; Freire, 1985, 2004; Gay, 1995). Broadly speaking, this naiveté has hidden the fact that many marginalized people have experienced schools as oppressive institutions harmful to their communities and cultures. The deployment of critical social theory and methods by educational scholars are an attempt to scrutinize whether schools act as sites of the social and cultural marginalization (Apple, 2001; Apple & Weis, 1983; Bourdieu, 1990; Gay, 1995; McLeod, 1995; Kana‘iaupuni, 2003). In this way, scholars can question whether schools continue to operate “in the grips of conservative forces...serving the cause of perpetuating ideas and institutions suited to an age that is gone” (Counts, 1932, p. 5).

TEACHERS DECISIONS

These sentiments bring into question the contemporary perception that quality schooling, no matter how it is constructed, is purely a good thing for all students, and in particular the diverse and marginalized. This naiveté hides the fact that schooling is not a good, equitable monolithic experience for all students. It hides the fact that diverse communities are not founded on one singular utopian purpose. Education is experienced differently and results in different outcomes for different students. This is especially problematic as no significant record or line of scholarship has yet proven accountability reform as meaningful and successful with regards socially just outcomes for diverse and marginalized students. This approach flies in the face of significant amounts of educational research that suggest accountability reforms and standardized approaches to pedagogy that at best reproduce the status quo and at worst contribute negatively to diverse and marginalized students' educational experiences and opportunities. Overall, there are divergent perspectives on what constitutes the purpose of education, reasons behind the design of learning activities, varying approaches on how to provide quality, and differing expectations on what outcomes should be (Deschenes, Cuban, & Tyack, 2001; Newell and Bellour, 2002). While education and schooling have the potential to be a positive social, intellectual, and academic experiences for students, "good" becomes a relative term depending largely on who designs the policy and schools, for whom, with what purpose, aims, practices, and to what effect. This is problematic as accountability reforms are built upon histories where academic achievement, veiled in success and equality for all, was truly about the assimilation into conservative ideals about the economic progress of society (Evans & Davies, 2014).

The binaries of liberation and oppression are rarely so essentializing in one direction or the other, leaving schooling as either/or. Rather, schooling is the product resulting from an amalgamation of ideas. These ideas are engineered in purpose and policy, executed in practice,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

and direct schools towards explicit outcomes. Ideology, policy, and practice are constructed, transmitted, and experienced by a broad range of educational actors including: reformers, scholars, policy makers, politicians, philanthropists, administrators, teachers, parents, and students. Given the great mix of actors in educational discourse, and the inherent, unequal power dynamics between them, critical theory encourages examinations that seek to make connections between ideas, policies and practices and the social context in which they arise (Apple, 1999; Apple & Weis, 1983; Freire & Shor, 1986).

According to Freire (1970), transparency that places ideology, the purpose of schooling, and its intended outcomes in critical space, emboldens dialogue about the aims of schools. Dialogue creates space for diverse and marginalized perspectives. Making discourse and ideology transparent provides a frame through which we can examine role of ideology played in the development educational processes and school outcomes. (Apple, 2000; Ball, 1995; Battiste, 2000; Giroux, 1984). Similarly, the engagement about an issue from multiple perspectives helps to problematize educational structures and nuance individual experiences within. The increased scrutiny and exposure counterbalances the narrative of naiveté. Critical examination has the potential to eliminate the doxic, or unsubstantiated public, view of education as a “good” thing. In doing so, the outcomes of education can be further interrogated vis-à-vis the distribution of sociopolitical resources, and we can more directly confront the reality that powerful educational actors often neglect the truth of economic inequity and its roles in influencing educational outcomes. The hope is to arrive at a point where we can advocate for education that is democratic, equitable, and contextualized to the needs of the community, regardless of economic disparity.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

In this way, the dialogic creates space for the voices and perspectives of those educational actors with the least amount of control and power. Scholars have suggested that in doing so, in giving marginalized voices a place, this increases the opportunity to democratically and authentically engage in the social construction and navigation of the broader social and educational politic as well as bring to light socioeconomic inequities (Freire, 2000; Gay, 1995; Hickling-Hudson, Matthews, & Woods, 2004; Ivison, et al., 2000; Kana'iaupuni & Kawai'ae'a, 2008; Kaomea, 2003; Macedo, 1999; Merriam, 1928; McLaren, 1998; Ogbu, 1990; Scribner & Cole, 1973; Smith, 1999). This is especially critical in indigenous contexts. Largely speaking, indigenous peoples have been excluded from contemporary forms of economic and institutional power and powerful sociopolitical groups have dominated how indigenous groups are educated for ideological and socioeconomic gain (Fear-Segal, 2006; Freire & Shor, 1987; Gay, 1995; Kaomea, 2003; Kincheloe, 2004).

Contextualized pedagogies are grounded in sociocultural and sociohistorical theory that posits learning as a social process in which individuals meaningfully interact with others in their situated lived experiences. These lived experiences are within rich cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological contexts. The foundations argue for the practices of teaching and learning to be relevant to the context of students lived experience. These reformers view education as an opportunity to empower students to engage in learning experiences that lead to democratic positive, and meaningful transformations of their own unique cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological contexts. Across a range of teaching practices, it is often talked about as an important first step in the teaching process “getting to know your students” and framed by a question of, “who are your students?”.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Which pedagogies appear at the foundations of teacher's practice, and in relationship to which contexts, remains largely unknown. This is especially the case in diverse and marginalized schools. In the interest of informing this critical conversation about effective teaching, this study describes and unpacks teacher's decisions for and perceptions of curriculum and instruction in the contexts of education policy, pedagogy, and students lived context. Together, the conversation about their work helps us to uncover more about the influences and connections that shape their professional reasoning. By making clearer the connections between the how they describe their decisions and perceptions, there is an opportunity to build on the critical dialogue that takes into consideration the broader context of reform, pedagogy, and context while attempting to support diverse and marginalized students. This dialogue informs a critical conversation around what we know about pedagogy in the diverse and marginalized context, and arrives at some conclusions about what it should be. These critical perspectives are founded on significant research that suggests contextualized pedagogies may be most appropriate for diverse and marginalized students. In the end, and with respect for the on the ground realities of teachers work, this is a conversation about teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts.

Critical Evaluation of Qualitative Inquiry

The interpretations of teachers' decisions as represented in transcripts of teachers' interviews on curriculum and instruction were adequate and accurate according to my efforts to conceptualize the empirical qualities of the language used in the interviews and because I used *in vivo* coding throughout the process. Each step and stage in the process was connected. The codes were logically bound together from the original inductive processing of the transcripts, building of codes, categories, and themes. The modeling of teachers' decisions into a thematic

TEACHERS DECISIONS

representation makes sense in relationship to both the practice of teaching and the question of the inquiry. These themes were used to deduce aspects of the dimensions of the categories to build the theoretical and critical argument. These threads of language and process throughout give the codes significant continuity. Additionally, the codes, categories, models, as well as theoretical aspects and critical dimensions are both relevant and appropriate because they come from the words of teachers' talking about their work in a professional and naturalistic setting. I remained tied to in vivo codes throughout the various analytic stages. This study is valuable because of its ability to not only describe broadly what teachers' decisions appear to be based on, but because it asks theoretical and critical questions of their world, and in reference to the contexts that inform and influence them. It arrives at critical viewpoints and claims are meaningful in terms of the research context, students' learning, teacher's work, scholarly research, and the preparation of teachers in the research context, and beyond.

As is evident from my myriad points of reference, I have taken a critical, social, and contextual orientation to knowledge construction. Constructivist grounded theory has encouraged me to name these, but also encourages researchers to remain open to the teachers' decisions and perceptions and attempted to suspend critical analysis (if only marginally and temporarily; and especially early on in the analysis) (Charmaz, 2006). This is because constructivist grounded theory encourages the use of existing literature and knowledge after the initial descriptive stages. This work allows the researcher to both use and challenge existing knowledge in relationship to the interpretations (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2009; Heath, 2006).

Yet, as Kincheloe, McLaren and Steinberg (2012) declare, "pushing to a new conceptual terrain, such an eclectic process raises numerous issues that researchers must deal with." As they

TEACHERS DECISIONS

see it, critical research is an opportunity for researchers to acknowledge self-awareness and contextual complexities (Kincheloe, McLaren, & Steinberg, 2012). These opportunities engage with one's own starting points, social positions, and contexts of research, as well as being critically conscious about how powerful social structures influence these. There is a specific responsibility of a critical researcher to approach critical social research in rigorous, methodical, yet humble, transparent, and empowering ways. Quality of this critical research is often constructed as whether or not the knowledge creates spaces for encouraging social justice. As Shields (2012) notes, "critical research begins with the premise that research's role is not to describe the world as it is, but also to demonstrate what needs to be changed." In her piece on critical advocacy research Carolyn Shields (2012) sheds light on some ways in which we may evaluate whether or not critical research is meaningful and valuable. First and foremost, she brings to bear the need for our research to eventually lead to a positive social transformation for currently marginalized social groups (Shields, 2012). She encourages scholars to take a critical stance as public brokers of knowledge and social action (Shields, 2012).

One way that she offers as a mean to accomplish this goal is the authenticity of the knowledge constructions. She suggests that researchers should evaluate their processes on whether or not they are able to approach interpretive work without theoretical preconceptions about what has previously been determined as truth, and rather think about and approach research with an appreciation for multiple interpretations (Evers & Wu, 2006; Shields, 2012). This includes offering multiple interpretations from varying perspectives, and remaining open to them during, at the conclusion, and after the research has been shared with the community.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

The general impetus rests in what many critical scholars suggest is a desire to uncover critical aspects normally taken for granted in aspects of society that increase inequality and facilitate the marginalization of those people lacking in political, social, or economic power (Freire, 2000; Foster, 1986; Kaomea, 2001; Shields, 2012). In her call for critical advocacy research to drive change, Carolyn Shields (2012) encourages scholarship to bring to light the inequities that are persistent in educational systems. Inasmuch, she captures three aspects of the significance of critical scholarship as outlined by William Foster (1986) as increasing understanding, forwarding the critique of power imbalance and inequity, and developing knowledge and education for change that alleviates inequity. This inquiry approaches these standards of critical scholarship and I accomplish the following, (1) Identify themes that exist across classroom practice in order to raise consciousness about the foundations of teacher work; (2) Develop critical inferences from interpretations of teacher's work by analyzing in comparison to the language and concepts of standardized and contextualized pedagogical frameworks; and, (3) Engage in an informative discussion with teachers about how research interpretations relate to their professional perspectives on teaching in diverse and marginalized contexts.

Exploring teacher's decisions from the critical perspective was especially meaningful as recent federal education policy has intentionally targeted diverse and marginalized students and have the potential to maintain the status quo in educational inequity. Changes have come by means of standardized educational mechanisms designed to control for teacher quality. These reforms have reoriented the nature of the educational environment by explicitly and discursively conscripting teacher professional autonomy and de-contextualizing curriculum and instruction in ways that may negatively impact student learning. Reforms are such that teachers are directed to think and act in particular ways. Teachers are targeted because their work in curriculum and

TEACHERS DECISIONS

instruction is seen as the single most important variable that can be controlled for as government institutions push for increases in student's academic performance as measured by standardized assessments. Teachers are at times mandated to use standardized educational mechanisms such as common objectives, scripted curriculums, "best" practices, standardized assessments, data based instructional decisions, and high stakes testing in their classrooms. These changes have resulted in a narrow construction of the purpose of education and devalue the role of the teacher in the process of teaching and learning (Goodson, 2014). Increased understanding of these relationships is important for reasons that Shields (2012) notes,

Because critical researchers still struggle to swim upstream in a positivity current of quasi experimental design and interpretation, it is important to work to ensure that research data are carefully embedded in an "inferential network" about socially just education, the presence of an unequal playing field, and the need for a more equitable and more inclusive approach to education. (p. 5)

It has been argued that mechanisms associated with accountability reform have resulted in a techno-rational, decontextualized, myopic, and outcomes based focus in education. As a result, the essential contextual connections between a student's lived circumstance and the teacher's curriculum and instruction are left behind. This is particularly problematic recognizing that scholarship on pedagogy and learning suggests that curriculum and instruction founded on contextualized pedagogies creates essential connections for students is necessary for learning. Contextualized practices, linked to students' cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological worlds, contribute to increased student engagement, academic performance, and authentic social transformation in students' lives. Increased learning, and the resultant social transformations, are especially meaningful in contexts where dominant ideologies, systems, and structures have long

TEACHERS DECISIONS

been responsible for perpetuating social inequality and continued marginalization. This understanding creates an opportunity for dialogue and learning about the pedagogical foundation that are used, in particular those pedagogies with the possibility to transform dominant systems of education in diverse and marginalized contexts. A transformation towards contextualized pedagogies could address historical legacies of cultural oppression, alleviate stress of socioeconomic disadvantage, and value the meaningful cultural, social, and ecological environments in students' lives.

This study, and its critical orientation, takes a stand that acknowledges standardized pedagogy in diverse and marginalized contexts should be critiqued. Domi-righteous ideological and ontological perspectives, when coupled with trans-reductionary educational mechanisms such as standardizing pedagogy, demand critical exploration. In education, and specifically in terms of accountability reform, the problem of social inequity is constructed in such a way that blames parents, communities, teachers, and students (Ravitch, 2013). It is important to problematize any social policy that takes a deficit oriented stance towards the intended recipients. Interrogation of teacher work in relation to meaningful social contexts allows us to see more critical connections between the powerful policy prescribed to support diverse and marginalized students and localized teachers' decisions (Apple, 1985; Wexler, Martusewicz & Kern, 1987; Luke, 1995). Arriving at texts generated from qualitative research on teachers talking about their decisions of their curriculum and instruction in relationship to students' lives illuminates some of the explicit and latent influences on their work.

Limitations to My Approach

Teacher's explanations of their thinking are important to understanding teacher practice (Pajares, 1992). The analytical interpretations presented in this inquiry only represent this

TEACHERS DECISIONS

particular group of teachers and in their time and place. I am not talking about grand theories of teaching across temporalities or contexts, what I am talking about is an opportunity to critically confront an evidential aspect from a meaningful exploration of teachers' practice that was represented by interviews on their decisions on curriculum and instruction. To think that this sliver of reality represents more than simply what it contributes to what we know about teachers' decisions in these classrooms, and how we can usefully make sense of it against some previous knowledge and larger constructs, belies a logic that suggests that the social world is infinitely complex across dimensions of time, space, place, culture, people, and language. We simply can't know about how the exactness of these representations can extrapolate to other scenarios, and yet we try, and I try in such a way that this information is an opportunity to begin to think about what it means in relationship to teachers' everyday work.

Furthermore, I am thinking about what it means given the foundations of education policy and what we know about the use of contextualized pedagogies in diverse and marginalized school contexts. Lastly, it is important to remember that these are my interpretations of the teachers' work, they do not represent teachers' nuanced interpretations of their own work. In order to address this ontological and epistemological issue, I do include reflexivity in my analysis. Inasmuch, I present my Interpretations from the analytical processes to a group of teacher-participants. That way, I am able to include some of their nuance in my representations and guide our thinking about the meaning of our new-found understandings in relationship to the important aspects of classrooms, students' learning and teachers' practice. I offer these reasons as limitations to my approach. I only interviewed these teachers and in these schools. I do not think that 28 teachers can represent 14,000. I do not think that the teachers' in this study can represent those ethnicities and peoples who are not represented here. The study

TEACHERS DECISIONS

had a limited amount of Native Hawaiian teachers, teacher diversity in general, and no culture-based schools. While these teachers brought up important issues, issues identified in scholarly research as foundational barriers to the contextualization of knowledge in classrooms, they are not the only perspectives. This is especially the case because I only explored and analyzed two responses that teachers gave for their decisions on curriculum and instruction.

It is important to note that I am not using grounded theory as a method in any explicit manner, nor am I trying to develop some purely theoretical contribution to the field of education about teacher decisions and perceptions. As Kathy Charmaz (2004, 2014) notes, not all grounded analysis is an attempt to generate theory. Grounded theory, as with all strictly designed and applied methods are up for critique. I am particularly wary of the way some grounded theorists apply research procedures explicitly, without respect for flexibility. I also reject the attempt to construct purely theoretical truths about very complex social phenomena derived from field texts taken from diverse but unique social contexts. I am not attempting to discover about teaching as a social process, I am trying to develop some meaningful and rigorous understanding from a select, and arguably narrow, group of teachers working in somewhat defined social contexts. The knowledge developed from these field texts is an opportunity to appreciate further exploration of these complex issues, in these contexts, and an opportunity to engage with the participants, other researchers, and educational stakeholders about the value of what we know from prolonged and thoughtful explorations.

Beyond these general limitations of grounded theory as an approach to research, my adapted version fails to address some important aspects of the grounded theory methodology. I am transparent about not conducting a traditional grounded theory research project and as a result did not follow through on returning to the field to collect additional data around

TEACHERS DECISIONS

preliminary results, other than to address the results with theoretical sampling and critical questions posed. My work was conducted towards the end of Race to the Top initiatives in the Hawaii public schools. The interviews and observations I did were linked to aspects of the federal and state initiatives and I paid teachers to participate using federal money.

Future Scholarly Research

There are a significant number of more studies that can be conducted using this inquiry as the foundation. I would like to know more about the individual teachers who used contextualization in their classrooms. I would like to know more about the teachers who spoke critically about reform. I would like to learn more about and from teachers who opposed and modified the scripted curriculums and chose to use professional autonomy in their decision-making processes. Furthermore, I would like to know more about the difference between curriculum decisions and instructional decisions. I would like to know more about how this differences within subject areas or grade levels. I know some people have suggested that younger students don't need contextualization, they need basic skills. I would love to engage in a discussion about this point.

I have data on the following interview questions that has yet to be looked at and analyzed. I also have observations of teachers, classrooms, and students who are working on learning in classrooms. *What are the learning outcomes for this lesson, and how are they related to the larger learning sequence? How would you describe this lesson as meaningful, useful, or relevant for students (i.e. communicate the importance of the content)? What are the big questions are you using to drive student discussion? How are you planning to check for understanding and assess student outcomes? How would you describe this lesson as engaging for students? How do you plan to manage student behavior throughout the lesson, starting with*

TEACHERS DECISIONS

expectations? What do you like about these materials? How would you describe these materials as meaningful and relevant to student's lives? Are there any changes that would you make to these materials? 1. How were you effective in communicating the purpose of the lesson? Which parts of your instructional practice were most effective supporting students to meet the learning objectives? Why? What role did organization play in this lesson (planning, classroom set-up)? What role did management play in this lesson (expectations, procedures, routines, behavior management)? How do you think the lesson went with regards to student engagement? How do you think students found this lesson meaningful and relevant? How would you like to develop this lesson in the future?

Within the Highlighting Effective Teaching Strategies (HETS; hets.leeward.hawaii.edu) data set, I think there is an opportunity to explore how teachers perceive their curriculum and instruction as relevant to students' lives. There are explicit questions within the interviews that address this issues explicitly. Furthermore, I would like to connect knowledge of teachers' decisions and perceptions to their practices in the classroom. The HETS video library contains over 60 hours of classroom instruction explicitly linked to the interviews. This observational evidence has been looked at for frameworks for effective practice, but these frameworks do not include contextualization as an effective strategy. My question is should they? So, I could at the evidence from this study in comparison to evidence for the frameworks for effective teaching.

Finally, I think we have amazing opportunities to look into our schools and find example of highly contextualized practices. I know anecdotally that some teachers are doing amazing work around the Hawaiian Voyaging Society's (HVS) recent four-year trip around the world. This one-of-a-kind journey produced such a wealth of information and knowledge that it would be a travesty not to share it with our students across all public schools. Some teachers are

TEACHERS DECISIONS

currently doing this, but who are they and how do we understand their decisions to do so? I sincerely think that the emergence of Hawaiian scholarship, language and knowledge about and Hawaiian educational and social issues needs to be understood in terms of its reasons. These reasons provide society an opportunity to grapple with its starting and standing points, as well as understand the critical and contextual points made by its people in a quest for social justice. We need to study this and learn from these brave warriors and souls.

Conclusion

Finally, it appears as if there are significant barriers to the contextualization of knowledge in the lives of students learning Hawai'i public schools. This is a significant problem because of the overall cultural, socioeconomic, and ecological diversity in Hawai'i, as well as diversity in Hawai'i looking different in unique contextual locations. For this reasons, all of Hawai'i's public schools and teachers should be making stronger efforts at contextual considerations in curriculum and instruction. This is especially the case in Title I school contexts targeted by federal reform efforts. In our marginalized contexts, we should be focused because there is an increased intensity of reform mechanisms driving the work of teachers in our lowest performing schools. This is where our most vulnerable students and communities learn to acknowledge their histories, cultures, norms, values, languages, identities as either a part of the larger society or on the margins. In Hawai'i, our marginalized communities are the heartbeat of the islands, the protectors of her peoples, values, and these peoples are the wisest and most knowledgeable about Hawai'i. As such, we need to honor and respect certain communities for far too many reasons to name here. So, I say, before we continue to implement increased amounts of standardized practices in marginalized contexts, both here or anywhere, we should consider our knowledge of the contexts in which we operate and how that manifests in curriculum and instruction, and with

TEACHERS DECISIONS

attention to its culturally relevant, socially just, and ecological value. I mean this sincerely.

When we choose to contextualize curriculum and instruction in the lives of our students, whether it be for reasons of unveiling the questionable foundations of reforms or making relevant to students the contextual uniqueness of these areas, we are explicitly confronting the legacy of domination and colonization in our public schools.

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APPENDIX I: SCHOOL AND TEACHER DEMOGRAPHICS

Demographic Table 1. School Demographics- Significant Cultural Groups

<i>School Setting</i>	Schools	Lessons	Title I - lessons
<i>Majority Cultural Group</i>			
Native Hawaiian Part/Hawaiian-Majority	2	7	7
White-Majority	1	5	0
Filipino-Majority	2	2	2
East Asian-Majority	0	0	0
<i>Highest Percentage but not Majority</i>			
Native Hawaiian-Highest	2	5	5
White-Highest	3	14	0
Filipino-Highest	1	2	2
East Asian-Highest	3	8	2
Micronesian-Highest	1	6	6
<i>Represented with over 20% but not highest</i>			
Native Hawaiian-over 20% but not highest	2	20	9
White-over 20% but not highest	1	11	2
Filipino-over 20% but not highest	3	12	8
East Asian-over 20% but not highest	3	8	3

Demographic Table 2. School Context- Socioeconomic

School Setting	Schools	Teachers	Lessons	Interviews
Non-Title I	5	14	22	44
Title I schools	9	14	24	48
Title I - Over 40% FRL	2	3	5	10
Title I - Over 60% FRL (MARG) and over 60% underrepresented groups	7	11	19	38

Demographic Table 3. School Context- Geographic

Ecological Setting	Schools	Teachers	Lessons
Rural	2	4	7
Sub-Urban	8	17	27
Urban	4	7	12
Total	14	28	46

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 4. Teacher Participant- Self-Identified Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
African-American	1	2	2
Chinese	1	2	0
Filipino	2	4	4
Hispanic	1	2	0
Japanese	6	12	5
Mixed-Asian	4	5	4
Part-Hawaiian	1	1	0
White-American	12	18	11
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Demographic Table 5. Teacher-Student Demographic Comparison HDOE, 2014-2015

Ethnicity	Students	Teachers
African-American	2.8%	0.7%
Caucasian	17%	24.1%
Chinese	3.1%	3.6%
Filipino	22.1%	6.4%
Hawaiian/Part-Hawaiian	26%	9.9%
Hispanic	3.6%	1.3%
Japanese	9.1%	25.3%
Korean	1.1%	1.0%
Micronesian	4.2%	NA
Native American	0.6%	0.0%
Samoan	3.4%	0.5%
Other	6.9%	26.7%
<i>Total</i>	<i>99.9%</i>	<i>99.5%</i>

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 6. Teacher Participant- Grade level

Grade Level	Teachers	Lessons	Title I - lessons
Lower Elementary (K-3)	8	14	11
Upper Elementary (4-6)	6	10	5
<i>Total Elementary</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>16</i>
Middle School (7-8)	8	12	0
High School	6	10	8
<i>Total Middle and High</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>8</i>
Totals	28	46	24

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 7. School Context- Subject Areas and Grade Levels

Subject	Lessons - subject	Lessons - Title I
<i>Common Core Subjects</i>		
Math-Elementary	5	4
Math- Middle and High School	6	3
ELA-Elementary	11	8
ELA-Middle and High School	6	3
<i>Total CC lessons</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>18</i>
<i>General Subjects</i>		
Science-Elementary	6	4
Science- Middle and High School	4	0
SS-Elementary	0	0
Social Studies- Middle and High School	6	2
<i>General Subjects Total</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>Other (P4c)</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Total</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

Demographic Table 8. Teacher Participant- Highest Degrees and Certification

Highest Degree	Teachers	Title I- teachers
Bachelor's	13	8
Master's	14	6
PhD	1	0
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>14</i>
<i>Additional Credentials</i>		
NBCT	6	3

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 9. Teacher Participant- Years Teaching

Years	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
1-3	2	4	0
4-5	6	11	6
6-10	9	15	8
11-20	7	9	6
21+	4	7	4
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

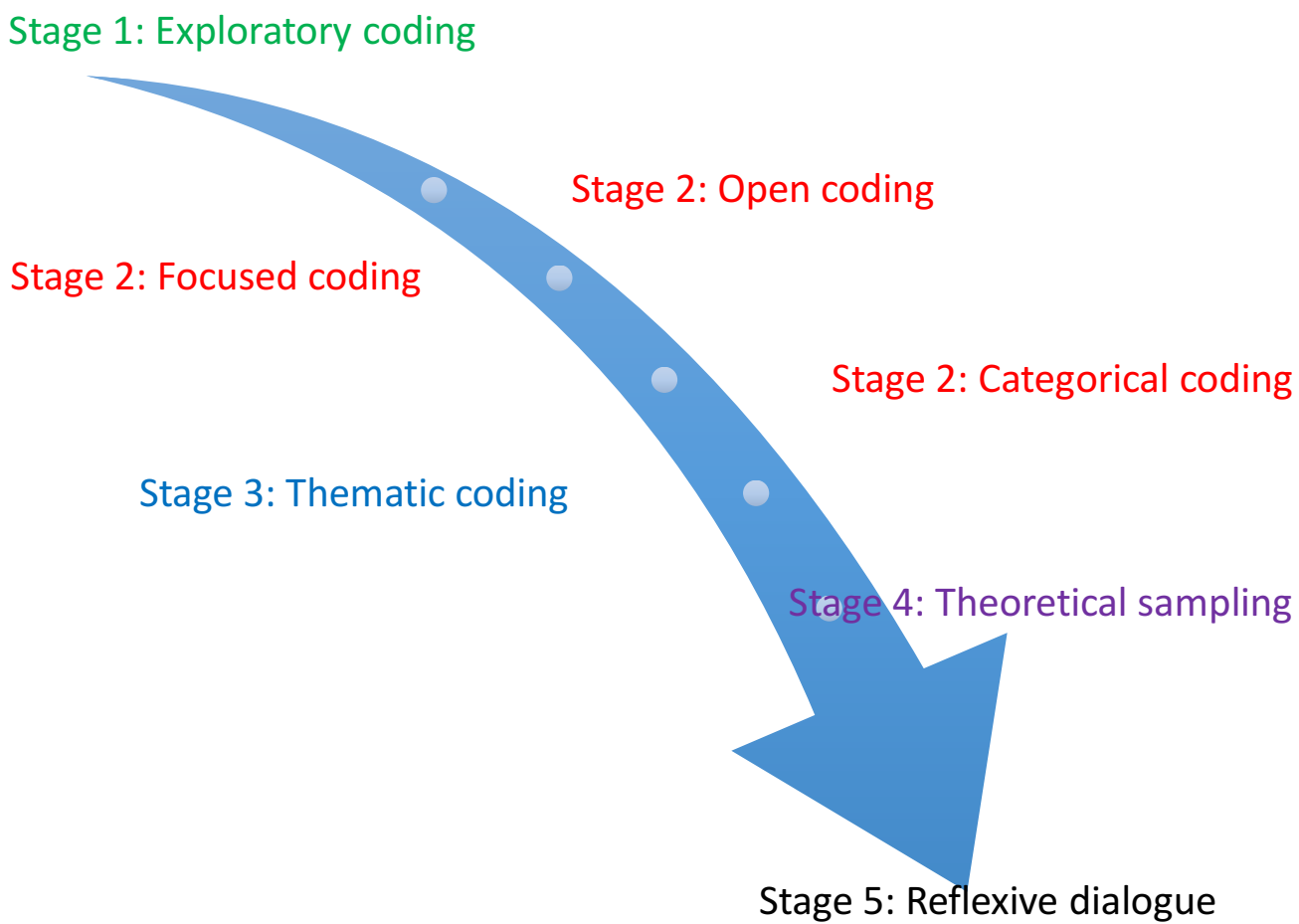
TEACHERS DECISIONS

Demographic Table 10. Teacher Participant- Years Living in Hawai‘i

Years	Teachers	Lessons	Title I-lessons
1-2	1	2	2
3-5	5	8	5
6-10	2	4	0
11-20	5	7	5
21+	5	9	4
Born and Raised	10	16	8
<i>Total</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>46</i>	<i>24</i>

APPENDIX TWO: ANALYTICAL PROCESSES

Analytical Process Figure 1. The Stages of Analytical Process



Analytical Process Figure 2. Processes for Analyzing Teachers' Decisions

Stage 1: Exploratory Analysis (Analytical Process 1 & 1a.; Analytical Output 1-9.)

Stage 2: Generative and Descriptive Analysis Across Cases and Contexts (Analytical Process 2.)

- Open Coding (Analytical Process 2a.; Analytical Output 10.)
- Focused and Dimensional Coding (Analytical Process 2b.; Analytical Output 11 & 12.)
- Category-building (Analytical Process 2c.; Analytical Output 13; Analytical Interpretations 1-14.)

Stage 3: Thematic Modeling with Practical and Critical Considerations (Analytical Process 3 & 3a.; Analytical Interpretations 15-19.)

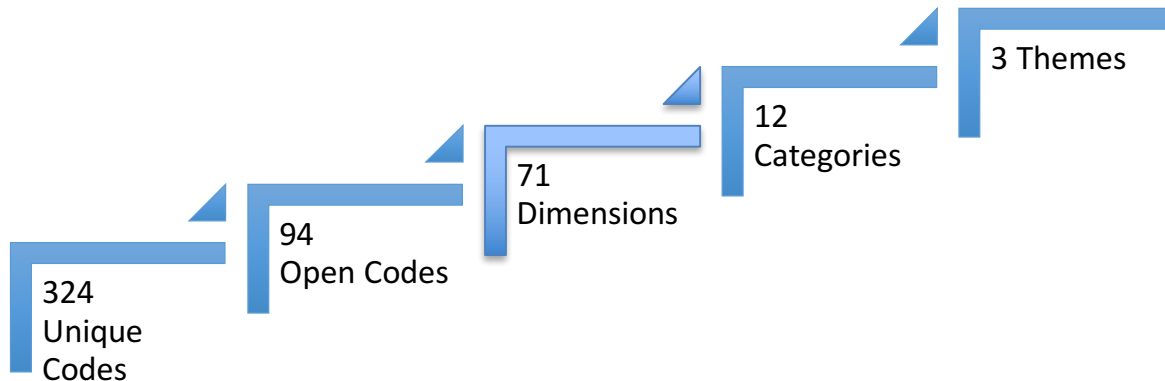
Stage 4: Theoretical Sampling (Analytical Process 4.)

- Standardized or Contextualized Pedagogies (Analytical Process 4a.; Theoretical 1. & 3.; Analytical Interpretations 20. & 21.)
- Critical Questions Within Contexts, Across Contexts, and Among Themes (Analytical Process 4b.)
 - Title I (Analytical Interpretations 21.)
 - Non-Title I (Analytical Interpretations 23.)
 - Marginalized (Analytical Interpretations 24.)
 - Across Contexts (Analytical Interpretations 25.)
 - Among Themes (Analytical Interpretations 26.)

Stage 5: Dialogue with Teacher Participants (included in interpretations and conclusions)

- Memos
- Critical Realizations
- Implications

Analytical Process Figure 3. The Coherence of Inductive Outputs

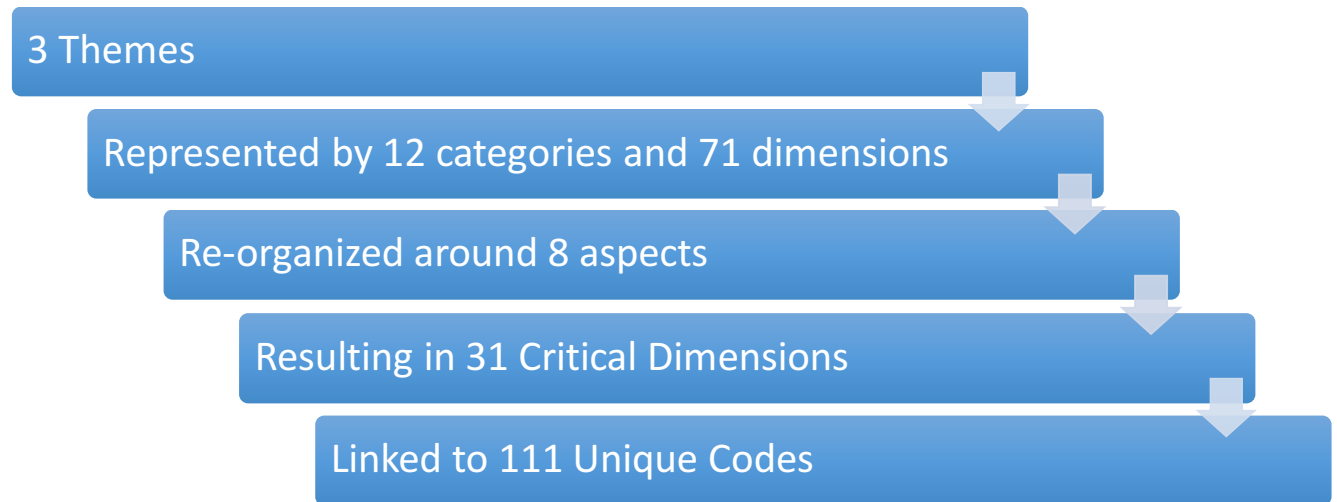


Narrative description: 324 unique codes were created from a close coding of the transcripts.

These unique codes reduced into 94 open codes. The open codes reduced into 71 dimensions.

Dimensions were organized into 12 grounded categories. The categories were represented in 3 major themes.

Analytical Process Figure 4. The Coherence of the Deductive Outputs



Narrative description: 3 themes represented 12 categories and 71 dimensions of teachers' decisions. These categories were looked at with consideration for 8 theoretical aspects (4 from standardized pedagogy and 4 from contextualized pedagogy). The 8 theoretical aspects resulted in identifying 31 critical dimensions of the categories linked to foundations of standardized or contextualized pedagogy. These 31 dimensions were represented in the data by 111 unique codes from the 92 transcripts.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Process Table 1. Exploratory Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
1	Exploratory	Analytical Process 1a.	Across all transcripts	Exploratory-holistic	Analytical Output 1 & 2.
			Transcripts within context and within Curriculum and instruction	Exploratory-in context	Analytical Output 3-7.
			Exploratory codes across contexts	Exploratory-for focus	Analytical Output 8 & 9.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Process Table 1a. Exploratory Coding of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Outputs
<i>Exploratory</i>	Coding across contexts from readings of instructional and curricular interviews, together and then separately.	To become familiar with the data in terms of its breadth and dimensions. This is also an opportunity to explore bias.	43 exploratory codes and 18 more focused codes to begin to look at frequency and focused dimensions.
<i>Exploratory in Context</i>	Coding across contexts from closer readings of instructional and curricular interviews, separately and within contexts.	To become familiar with the data in context, and within curriculum and instruction. This was an opportunity to check the total number of codes generates within context and within curriculum and instruction. This ensured that the data was substantial, valuable, and nuanced.	113 total codes were generated. Approximately 10-12 codes were generated each for curriculum and instruction. Together, each context generated between 20-25 codes across curriculum and instruction.
<i>Exploratory for Focus</i>	Codes were combined across contexts and curriculum and instruction to see if some codes appeared more than once and to what degree. Codes were combined for similarities and dimensions, and given frequencies	To begin to identify certain codes that appeared in multiples and begin to construct understanding around basic themes that may appear with closer and more focused coding. This was also another opportunity to explore bias.	113 total codes were used. 24 more focused codes were generated. The frequencies of all codes were noted, as well as some dimensions, and those 8 codes with the highest frequency were identified.

Analytical Process Table 2. Descriptive Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
2	Descriptive	Analytical Process 2a.	Across all transcripts	Unique codes	NA
			Unique codes across contexts	Open codes	Analytical Output 10.
		Analytical Process 2b.	Open codes across contexts	Focused-dimensions	Analytical Output 11 & 12
		Analytical Process 2c.	Dimensional and focused	Categories-initial	Analytical Output 13.
			Initial categories	Categories-final	Analytical Interpretations 1-14.

Analytical Process Table 2a. Open Coding of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Outputs
<i>Open Coding-Unique</i>	Open coding in NVivo across contexts from close readings and immediate coding of the lined segments and parts of text. Open codes were created by reading within curriculum and instruction.	To hone in on the important aspects and implicit meanings of the data as it related to the language that teachers used as their reasons for decisions in curriculum and instruction. This is the first step in recording/defining (mostly <i>in vivo</i>) what these reasons focused on and the language teachers used while remaining open to what the texts say, rather than analysis. This was the beginning of the formal interpretive process that became the data from which all other processes were conducted.	324 unique codes were generated across curriculum and instruction and across contexts.
<i>Review of Open Coding in Context and by case</i>	Open codes from across contexts were placed into their individual cases by grade and subject. Then codes were separated by curriculum and instruction, and by the contexts.	To become familiar with the open codes in curriculum and instruction by case and context. This was an opportunity to check the total number of codes generated within each of the cases and within contexts. Codes were examined for their value to the study and general frequencies by lesson and context. Most individual lessons had between 4-6 open codes. The codes were explored by the gross frequency in the data set and their location in unique cases. This ensured that the data was present, substantial, and nuanced.	324 unique codes were separated by case and context. 123 unique codes were generated within non-Title I schools, 46 Codes for Title I schools with less than 60% FRL, 155 Codes for Title I school with more than 60% FRL. Approximately 88% of codes were unique to individual lessons.

Analytical Process Table 2b. Focused Coding of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Outputs
<i>Focused Coding-frequency</i>	Open codes from across curriculum and instruction and across contexts were combined based on the sameness of the code. Then, I examined the frequencies of these codes to explore which were among the most regular reasons for teachers' decisions.	This step was done to become familiar with the significant unique codes in the data set. It helped to create understanding from constantly comparing the codes to other codes and begin to identify themes emerging from the data. Furthermore, I began to ask some analytical questions about the relationships between the cases, evaluate the adequacy of the unique codes.	The 324 unique codes were generated across curriculum and instruction and across contexts were reduced to 92 open codes. 10 open codes had frequencies more than 10 and 3 open codes had more than 20.
<i>Focused Coding-dimensions</i>	Unique and open codes were examined for their basic language and conceptual similarities to one another. I organized unique codes into larger dimensional codes. Once combined, I check these unique codes against my memos in exploratory coding.	High frequency open codes will normally have other unique codes named in similar or very close fashion. These codes were named (in vivo) from the group of codes and favoring the most significant or overarching concept. These are the beginning stages of developing nuance and dimensions of similarly coded data. This can help to check against bias.	92 open codes were reduced to 38 dimensional codes.
<i>Focused Coding-accuracy of dimensions</i>	Focused codes were examined for their basic language and conceptual similarities. I began to organize the unique and focused codes conceptually. I checked for adequacy the language of the unique codes to match the dimensional codes.	High frequency open codes will normally have other unique codes named in similar or very close fashion, or there may be two high frequency codes that are very similar conceptually. These should be combined at this stage. These are the beginning stages of developing nuance and dimensions of similarly coded data.	14 of the 38 dimensional codes were given dimensions based on open and focused codes.

Analytical Process Table 2c Categorical Coding of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Interpretations
<i>Categorical-initial</i>	Initially, I conceptually and dimensionally compared the dimensional codes against one another. I combined what appeared to be similar concepts across the dimensional codes.	This allows for the creation and solidification of significant conceptual themes across the codes.	38 dimensional codes were organized into 15 original categorical codes.
<i>Categorical-frequency</i>	I noted the frequency of the dimensional codes.	This allowed me to identify which codes had high frequency by low amounts of nuance. I was able to see the emergence of significant categories of codes.	The frequencies of the 15 categorical codes were noted. I made particular note of high frequency codes (more than 20 and more than 30 open codes) and lower frequency codes.
<i>Categorical-dimensional accuracy</i>	I noted the dimensions of the focused codes, and in particular looked at large codes that lacked dimensions. Then I moved or added nuance to the categories, and slightly reduced the number of original codes.	I check the accuracy of the open codes by comparing against the data and the newly developed categories. Open codes are sometimes lacking in accurate detail of the dimensions or were doubly coded. Double codes reduce accuracy and non-significant are not adequately representative.	I moved 15 codes to different categories. I nuanced 20 open codes. I removed 23 codes from the data. I combined 15 original categories into 12 final categories.
<i>Categorical-finalizing</i>	After “cleaning” the data, I recombined the focused codes and reorganized the dimensions.	These final categories represent the significant and nuanced conceptual organization of teachers' decisions across curriculum and instruction and across contexts.	I present the interpretations as 12 categorical codes with nuanced dimensions.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Process Table 3. Thematic Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
3	Thematic	Analytical Process 3a.	Conceptual categories	Modeling-critical	NA
			Conceptual categories	Modeling-practical	Analytical Interpretations 15.
			Conceptual categories	Modeling-frequency	Analytical Interpretations 16.
			Categorical dimensions	Dimensions of model	Analytical Interpretations 17-19.

Analytical Process Table 3a. Thematic Modeling of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Interpretations
<i>Thematic modeling</i>	I thought about my contextual framework in relationship to the data. This included looking at the data from a critical lens and grounded lenses from the perspective of teachers and learning in general. I consulted teachers and professionals. Then, I organized my thoughts into very crude models.	I needed to reaffirm my theoretical question about what these codes tell us about teachers' decisions. I needed to see the relationships among the categories, and with attention for the dimensions. This allows for a representation of the data in a conceptual model. Having multiple models allowed the ideas to be seen from multiple perspectives. Multiple perspectives mean that the model can be organized in multiple ways depending on the perspective of the modeler and the purpose of the model.	I produced a hierarchical, teacher-centered, learning-centered, and standards-centered models.
<i>Thematic continuum</i>	I thought about the models and how they related to one another. I considered my original question and looked at dimensions according to source of influence. I constructed a model based on theoretical questions. Then I constructed a practical continuum model.	I needed a way to talk about and make sense of the data for use in further analysis. The theoretical model based in standardization was not entirely clear or appropriate, though the practical model does consider the theoretical model. The practical model takes into consideration the main aspects of classroom work and teachers' decisions.	I produced a practical continuum model that acknowledges the significant aspects of the classroom: administration, teachers, and learning.
<i>Thematic frequency</i>	I noted the frequency of the categorical codes in relationship to one another and questioned the data as to what it was trying to say.	When I looked at the frequencies of the codes, the accuracy of story became clearer. This included the significance and the dominance of particular themes, categories, and dimensions, as well as their potential relationship to one another.	Teacher's decisions appear dominated by considerations for professional practice and students' learning, and less so by structure.

Analytical Process Table 4. Theoretical and Critical Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
4	Theoretical and Critical	Analytical Process 4a. & Theoretical 1.	Dimensions of themes	Theoretical-standardized	Analytical Interpretations 20.
		Theoretical 3.	Dimensions of themes	Theoretical-contextualized	Analytical Interpretations 21.
		Analytical Process 4b.	Dimensions of themes-in context	Critical-context	Analytical Interpretations 22-24.
			Dimensions of themes-across contexts	Critical-context	Analytical Interpretations 25.
			Dimensions among themes	Critical-themes	Analytical Interpretations 26.

Analytical Process Table 4a. Theoretical Interpretations of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Interpretations
<i>Theoretical Sampling-dimensional codes</i>	Look at data across the themes and the dimensions of the categories in relationship to the goal of the theoretical research question of whether or not it appears that teachers' decisions contain aspects of standardized and contextualized pedagogical frameworks.	The critical question is interested in looking at the evidence in the themes, categories, and dimensions to suggest that there appear to be linkages to the standardized and contextualized aspects of pedagogy. This is important because of the influence of reforms in diverse and marginalized contexts, and various parts of the contextual framework.	20 Theoretical dimensions were pulled from the themes for standardized pedagogy. 11 theoretical dimensions were pulled from themes for their apparent linkages to contextualized pedagogy.
<i>Theoretical Coding-thematic</i>	Look at the Theoretical aspects and reorganize into themes.	Once the theoretical dimensions of the data were identified, it was meaningful to construct theoretical themes to clarify conceptual understanding of the dimensions linked to aspects of standardized and contextualized theoretical frames.	5 primary themes emerged from standardized dimensions and 4 primary themes linked to contextualized dimensions.

Analytical Process Table 4b. Critical Interpretations of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Interpretations
<i>Critical Sampling-Context</i>	Theoretical dimensions were used to go back into open codes within context (Title I, non-Title I, and marginalized contexts).	Once theoretical themes and dimensions were identified, it was possible to go back to the original open codes in context and explore the critical questions.	13 Unique and Open Codes were attributed to standardized aspects of decisions in non-title I settings and 6 to contextualized. 17 unique codes linked to standardized in Title I and 6 contextualized.
<i>Critical Sampling-Frequency</i>	I noted the frequency of unique codes in context.	To see if there was evidence of significant standardized and contextualized pedagogy. The frequencies help to construct the narrative of whether or not standardized aspects of pedagogy tend to appear more frequently than contextualized aspects. This make a powerful argument.	Within the contexts, the story was the same. Many more open codes appeared linked to standardized pedagogy (45, 64, 52, respectively) as opposed to contextualized pedagogy 8, 6, 5).
<i>Further Critical Sampling</i>	I look at the frequency of standardized and contextualized aspects of pedagogy in the data.	To decide if further questions needed to be asked. Using deductive and abductive logic allows us to confirm the appearance of things.	No further questions need to be asked of the data at this time.

Analytical Process Table 5. Reflexive Processes for Interpreting Teachers' Decisions

Stage	Stage Name	Process Table	Focus of Analysis	Name of Output	Output Tables
5	Reflexive	Analytical Process 5a.	Categories, themes and dimensions of themes	Categorical, Thematic, and Theoretical Notes	NA
			Dimensions of themes in and across contexts and salient point	Critical Realizations and Pointed Implications	NA

Analytical Process Table 5a. Reflexive Interpretations of Teachers' Decisions

Process	Steps	Purpose	Interpretations
<i>Reflexive-memos</i>	Teacher participants are provided with outputs from categorical, thematic, and theoretical coding.	The reason for providing data to the participants is because of their intimate knowledge of the contexts and to value their voice and nuanced perceptions in classrooms and in the interpretation of teachers' decisions in the research setting.	4 teacher's memos on each of the outputs.
<i>Reflexive-dialogue</i>	Teacher participants are provided with an opportunity to dialogue on the categorical, thematic, and theoretical coding, and critical sampling.	The reason for dialogue is to develop critical connections among the teachers while valuing their voice and nuanced perceptions in classrooms and in the interpretation of teachers' decisions in the research setting.	Researcher memos on teachers' discussion of the outputs from categorical, thematic, and theoretical coding.
<i>Reflexive-claims</i>	Teacher participants are asked to contribute memos and dialogue about their thoughts on the conclusion of the critical sampling, implications for learning, future practice, future research, and the preparation of future teachers.	Teachers understand their nuanced professional lives, decisions, and settings better than researchers do. While the research can construct a valid argument, it does not capture the reality of the classroom, it merely interprets a part of it. Therefore, we need teachers' perspective on its value, if any, and what should be done in practice, scholarship, and in the preparation of teachers looking forward.	4 teacher memos on implications for learning, future practice, future research, and the preparation of future teachers.

Analytical Process Glossary of Terms.

Procedural Terms

- *Stage* - a purposeful and meaningful part of my analytic process with these research materials. (i.e. exploratory; generative and descriptive; practical, theoretical, critical, and abductive; and, reflexive)
- *Processes* - the analytic actions I participated in at each stage of inquiry to construct analytic interpretations from the texts (transcripts of interviews).
- *Steps* - chronological breakdown and description of the analytic steps taken within each process to produce interpretations of the texts.
- *Interpretations* - each time I make a descriptive, representative, analytical, theoretical, or critical move away from the actual direct language used by teachers in the interviews.
- *Codes* - heuristic devices are used to represent the illustrative meaning of teachers' words, phrases, or segments of text. Codes are used to make sense of teachers' decisions and serve as the foundational unit of interpretation from which all subsequent codes, categories, themes, aspects, and elements rely on for continuity and accuracy.
- *Analytical memos* - analytical thinking and writing constructed during or after completing a step, process, or stage and results in new interpretations.
- *Output* - the conceptual organization of the interpretations that resulted from various stages, processes, and steps. Generally speaking, the chronology of the output from this inquiry is:
 - unique codes represent the field texts
 - open codes are a conceptual and frequent representation of the unique codes
 - dimensional codes represent focused combinations of the open codes

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- grounded categories are conceptual representations of focused dimensional codes
- themes are practical organization of categories
- theoretical aspects are the critical examination of the categorical dimensions of themes in relationship to pedagogical frames
- Critical aspects are derived from looking at these aspects in relationship to original unique codes found in case and context
- *Tables* - the representations of the analytical processes, outputs, theoretical lenses, and interpretations from various stages, processes, and steps.

Contextual Terms

- *Title I* - a federal education policy designation in used for people's perceived to be disadvantaged and attributed to school settings with more than 40% of students receiving free and reduced lunch.
- *Free and Reduced lunch (FRL)*- a federal designation used for individual students who come from families experiencing economic hardship.
- *Non-title I* - schools in which less than 40% of students receive FRL.
- *Peoples described as marginalized or underrepresented groups* - a common phrasing of descriptive terms given to distinct cultural and ethnic groups that experience underrepresentation in constructed socioeconomic indicators such as politics, financial wealth, property ownership, health, and educational achievement. In Hawai'i, peoples who are commonly grouped and described as being underrepresented include Native Hawaiians, Filipinos, and other Pacific Island groups (i.e. Samoan, Micronesian). While commonly used, it should be noted that this is an essentializing term for groups of people

TEACHERS DECISIONS

based on socio-economic or ethnic constructs instead of considering their entirety of being or identity.

- *Marginalized school context* - a descriptor I use for schools with populations of peoples who have experienced historical and/or well-documented structural hardships often defined in sociological terms along lines of colonial, economic, social, political, or geographic marginalization. I uniquely construct the marginalized educational context in this study as schools serving more than 60% of students receive FRL with over 70% of students coming from groups of people described as underrepresented.
- *Across contexts* - across all lesson and interviews conducted in the research that includes interviews from Title I, and its subset marginalized, and non-Title I school settings.
- *Within contexts* - within one or more of the school settings, but not all three. For example, at later theoretical stages of analysis, I separate title I and non-Title I schools, and later separate out marginalized school contexts.
- *Across curriculum and instruction* - analysis of transcripts from both curricular and instructional interviews were used for analysis and codes were combined into set of codes.
- *Within curriculum or instruction* - used when analysis of transcripts from both curricular and instructional interviews were analyzed separately.
- *In case* - referring to analysis done in one of the 46 unique lessons from which two interviews were conducted, one for curriculum and one for instruction.
- *In context* - referring to analysis done in one of the three school contexts.
- *Across subjects* - referring to analysis of interviews across subject areas.

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- *Within Common Core Subjects* - referring to analysis of the interviews coming from specific subject areas utilizing Common Core State Standards (CCSS), specifically English Language Arts (ELA) and math.

Coding Terms

- *In vivo* code - a code that is exactly or mostly close to the language used by participants. The majority of the all the codes (open, focused, dimensional) at each stage of this analysis are *in vivo* codes. Similarly, categories, aspects, and elements (discussed in this section) are all derived from these codes, making the majority of all analytical components *in vivo*. This is not uncommon in a study located in similar natural and professional settings where participants have common knowledges and languages (Charmaz, 2006). For example, when a teacher mentioned “in this lesson they're learning how to give feedback and they're learning the standard”, I made a unique code called *standards-based*. The link between the teachers’ language in the interview and the unique code are easily seen. As the codes move into categories, the language and concepts become more is refined, but many retained conceptual similarity to the language in the texts the unique *in vivo* codes. As will become evident, *standards-based* is an *in vivo* that started as unique code but in later stages of analysis became its own category. This is particularly easy in a grounded inquiry of professionals who are talking about professional processes in professional settings.
- *Unique code* - An initial coding device generated by close reading and naming of the specific lines and segments of text from the original individual transcripts. (i.e. state-mandate is a unique code for the following text from a curriculum interview in which the teacher stated “we use the curriculum that has been prescribed by the state.”)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- *Open code* - An initial coding device created from repeated unique codes across all unique interpretations of the interviews and based solely on exact likeness. (i.e. *Developmentally-appropriate* was a unique code for the following text from a curriculum interview in which the teacher stated “I also created materials that were at their cognitive level of understanding.” It was also a unique code from a teacher who stated “chose this material specifically, the book, because...I think it was meant for elementary school students.” Together, these unique coded segments were grouped together using one open code *Developmentally-appropriate*.)
- *Dimensional code* - A dimensional code is named as a grouping of open codes that represent dimensions of a very similar concept. Dimensional codes are moving towards higher analytical levels of combined unique and open codes. In this process, unique and open codes are reviewed for accuracy and relatedness. (i.e. at the dimensional stage, the open code *diverse learning-tactile* and open code *diverse learning-auditory* combine to become parts of a dimensional codes *diverse learning strategies*)
- *Categories* - A construction that represents a group of open codes previously focused into dimensional codes and then further organized together at a higher analytical level for similarities in concept. (i.e. Sometimes dimensional codes can become categories. For example, CREDE and Philosophy for Children are both unique and open codes talking about workshops and professional learning that teachers based their practices on. They became linked together by a dimensional code, Professional Development (PD). Upon further categorical analysis, this dimensional code was conceptually accurate and adequate, meaning no more codes needed to be added or taken away and so it was strong enough to become a category.)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- *Dimensions of categories* - the dimensions of categories are developed from 38 dimensional codes. To use the same example, *CREDE* and *Philosophy for Children* are both original open codes that, after being dimensions of the dimensional code *professional development*, later became dimensions of the category *Professional Development*.
- *Themes* - A construction meant to represent multiple categories under one overarching relational theme located in the thematic model. The 3 main themes in this study were organized from the 12 conceptual categories. As categories move into themes, they retain their dimensions.
- *Practical Thematic Model* - A way of representing the organized relationships among the categories to represent a story of how the interpretations of teachers' decisions fit together within a larger picture of classroom teaching. For example, one of the terms I use to bind *administrative-driven* and *standard-based* is *structure-centered*. This category was developed based on my, and teachers, interpretations that these aspects that factored into their decision making were not necessarily under the individual teacher's control.
- *Categorical dimensions of themes* - a construction developed from an analysis of the dimensions of categories as represented in each of the 3 themes in the thematic model. (i.e. *administrative-based decisions* located in the *Structure-centered* theme contained dimensions of categories that included *state-mandate*, *scripted-curriculum*, *publisher-materials*, etc.)

Theoretical Terms

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- *Theoretical Sampling* - The opportunity to look at the themes, categories, and dimensions (or new research materials after being generated, described, and conceptually organized) through a particular lens or goals that was meaningful to the study. I sampled the data using theoretical questions.
- *Theoretical questions* - The theoretical questions for this study focus on whether or not we can identify theoretical aspects and elements of standardized and contextualized pedagogical frameworks in the data.
- *Standardized Pedagogical Framework* (See Theoretical Table 1.)
- *Contextualized Pedagogical Framework* (See Theoretical Table 3.)
- *Critical questions* - The questions reliant upon the knowledge generated in the theoretical questions and the evidence from theoretical questions is then looked at critical to see if a difference exists among our understanding of teachers' decisions in specific school contexts.
- *Theoretical Aspect* - a construction derived from theoretical foundations of standardized and contextualized pedagogies located in Theoretical table 1 & 2. (i.e. *Mandates* are an aspect of the theoretical foundations of standardized pedagogy, as are *academic skills*, *assessments*, and specifically *targeted populations*. Analytical Interpretations Table 20 & 21.)
- *Critical Elements of Theoretical Aspects* - Dimensions of theoretical aspects were developed from the theoretical analysis of the dimensions of categories situated within the thematic model. (i.e. *Mandates* are an aspect of the theoretical foundations of standardized pedagogy, and *district-strategies* are a critical element of that aspect. Analytical Interpretations Table 20 & 21.)

TEACHERS DECISIONS

- *Dimensions and Frequencies of Critical Elements of Theoretical Aspects* - The frequencies of these elements were constructed by going back into the original cases with unique codes and counting the distribution of these codes at first within cases in context and then across all contexts and cases.

Reflexive Terms

- *Reflexive Questions* -These are questions posed to teachers about the categorical, thematic, theoretical and critical representations developed by the researcher.
- *Reflexive Dialogue* - Conversations were had on accuracy of the naming, adequacy of the dimensions, dimensions of the categories, organization of the themes, appropriateness of the theoretical aspects, and the realizations of the critical elements.
- *Reflexive Memos* - Teacher-participants developed some brief memos on their perceptions of the interpretations. These were used to check for accuracy and adequacy of the naming and concepts.
- *Critical Reflexive Question* - Teacher-participants were asked to generate a critical memo on why they thought the salient constructed phenomena about the process of teaching was happening.
- *Pointed note* - teacher participants were asked to share one or two specific thoughts on what the realization meant to the following realities:
 - Implications for Student Learning,
 - Implications for Teacher Practice,
 - Implications for Future Research,
 - Implications for Teachers' Professional Learning and the Preparation of Future Teachers.

Terms for the Evaluation for Quality and Clarity

- *Frequency* - how many times a code appears in each different process. Frequencies exist at all stages of the process. Early on, they are particularly useful to check to see the texts are representations of a range of concepts and that the number of concepts generated is somewhat equal across and within various contexts. (i.e. the total initial frequency of open codes was 324)
- *Accuracy* - means varying things depending on the stage. With the unique and open coding, it is referring to whether or not the original segment of text was coded accurately in such a way that others who are familiar with the topic can understand. The accuracy of the dimensions and categorical codes to suggest that all codes therein have been looked at for coherence between the conceptual links to the language that was used by teachers and coded by me. In some cases, this meant that I needed to rename the code or category to more accurately reflect the dimensions or to avoid double-coding of one segment of text with two mostly indistinct codes. For example, in the initial open coding stages, I used two similar codes of *skill building* and *target-based*. Upon reviews for accuracy, I found that in some cases I had coded the same text with two mostly indistinct codes. I mostly removed *target-based*, however I kept *target-based* if it was an *in vivo* code.
- *Adequate nuance* - used to describe a quality checking device to ensure that a code or group of codes is conceptually bound and adequately named. For example, I decided that an early category of sequencing (which I had interpreted from the texts 24 times) did not have enough nuance because I had not adequately described the codes in such a way that they could be dimensionalized. So, went back into the original transcripts and looked at the text that I attributed that code to develop some nuance around that code. Similarly,

TEACHERS DECISIONS

at the later reflexive stage, some dimensions and categories were changed to reflect teacher-participants understanding of their decisions.

Terms and Concepts for External Evaluation for Quality and Clarity

- *Logical Coherence* - Each step is connected.
- *Conceptual Relevance*- The codes and interpretation are in vivo and relating to teachers' day-to-day language and work.
- *Thematic Continuity* - The modeling makes sense in relationship to teaching and the question of the inquiry.
- *Theoretical Appropriateness* - The applied theoretical lenses are appropriate to teachers work and within the contexts.
- *Critical Value* - The critical viewpoints and claims are meaningful in terms of the research context.

APPENDIX THREE: ANALYTICAL OUTPUT

Analytical Output Table 1. Initial Holistic Codes Across All Interviews

Exploratory Codes			
Academic sequence	Differentiated and individualized	Scaffolding instruction	State driven
Adapted for professional opinion	Differentiation and individualization	Scaffolding Instruction	Student engagement
Adapted for student needs	Focused on skill building	School based curriculum	Student engagement
Assessment and data driven	Hands on lessons	School driven	Students interests and desires
Assessment driven	Identified challenges	Scripted curriculum	Students' academic challenges
Assessment driven	Identifying areas of challenge	Scripted or school curriculum	Teacher efficiency
Based on professional development	Increased student engagement	Standards Based	Theoretically driven
Career and life Skills	Inquiry based instruction	Standards Based	Working in a sequence
Career driven	Language and literacy development	standards driven	
Curricular adaptations	Problem or inquiry based	State and global competition	
Data driven	Professional development	State curriculum	
Develop relevancy	Professional development	State driven	

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 2. Frequency of Holistically Constructed Exploratory Codes

Code	Freq.	Code	Freq.	Code	Freq.
Academic sequence	2	Identified challenges	2	Standards Based	3
Assessment and data driven	4	Inquiry based instruction	1	State Driven	3
Career and life Skills	2	Language and literacy development	1	Student engagement	6
Curricular adaptations	3	Professional development	3	Students' academic challenges	1
Differentiated and individualized	2	Scaffold instruction	2	Teacher efficiency	1
Focused on skill building	1	School based curriculum	4	Theoretically driven	1

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 3. Exploratory Codes in Non-Title I Charter Schools

<i>Curriculum</i>	Administrative decision	Multiple learning styles
	Assessment-driven	Scaffolding instruction
	Differentiation and individualization	Teacher efficiency
	Inquiry-based	Technology-driven
<i>Instruction</i>	Academic sequencing	Real-world connections
	Academic value	Scaffolding instruction
	Assessment-driven	Self-Assessment
	Conceptual development	Self-Directed learning
	Problem-based	Teacher efficiency

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 4. Exploratory Codes Non-Title I Schools

<i>Curriculum</i>	Authentic Assessment	Mandated	Sequenced
	Best Practice	Multiple learning styles	Standards Based
	Critical Thinking	Scaffolding instruction	Student Engagement
	Inquiry based	Self-Directed learning	Teacher Efficiency
<i>Instruction</i>	Academic sequence	Mandates	Real world connections
	Adapted Curriculum	Multiple Learning Styles	Scaffolding Instruction
	Assessment driven	Problem Based	Self-Directed learning
	Critical Thinking	Professional development	Teacher Efficiency

Analytical Output Table 5. Exploratory Codes in Title I Schools < 60% FRL

Exploratory Codes			
<i>Curriculum</i>	Adapted Curriculum	Inquiry Based	Self-Directed learning
	Assessment driven	Mandated	Standards Based
	Best Practices	Multiple learning styles	Student Engagement
	Competition based		Standards Based
<i>Instruction</i>	Academic sequence	Mandates	Standards Based
	Assessment driven	Scaffolding Instruction	Teacher Efficiency
	College skills driven	Self-Directed learning	Student engagement
			Student engagement

Analytical Output Table 6. Exploratory Codes in Title I Schools > 40% Native Hawaiian

Exploratory Codes			
<i>Curriculum</i>	Adapted Curriculum	Multidisciplinary	Standards based
	Assessment driven	Multiple learning styles	Student engagement
	Authentic Assessment	Scaffolding instruction	Student's needs
	Mandated	Self-Directed learning	Teacher Efficiency
<i>Instruction</i>	Academic sequence	Data driven	Scaffolding Instruction
	Assessment driven	Mandates	Self-Directed learning
	Best Practices	Multidisciplinary	Standards Based
	Career driven	Professional Development	Student engagement
			Student Needs

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 7. Exploratory Codes in Title I Schools > 60% FRL

Exploratory Codes			
<i>Curriculum</i>	Authentic assessment	Multidisciplinary	Standards based
	Inquiry Based	Multiple learning styles	Student engagement
	Language and literacy development	Scaffolding instruction	Student's needs
	Mandated	Self-Directed learning	Teacher efficiency
<i>Instruction</i>	Academic sequence	Data driven	Professional Development
	Assessment driven	Differentiated instruction	Real world connections
	Best Practices	Mandates	Scaffolding Instruction
	Career and College driven	Multiple learning styles	Standards Based
			Student engagement

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 8. Focused Aspects of Exploratory Codes

Exploratory Codes			
<i>Curriculum and Instruction</i>	Academic sequence (6)	Critical Thinking (2)	Real world connections (3)
	Academic Value	Differentiated instruction (2)	Scaffolding instruction (10)
	Adapted Curriculum (3)	Inquiry based (4)	Self-Assessment (9)
	Administrative decision	Language and literacy development	Standards Based (6)
	Assessment driven (10)	Mandated (8)	Student Engagement (8)
	Best Practice (4)	Multiple learning styles (10)	Student Needs (3)
	Career and College driven (3)	Problem Based (2)	Teacher Efficiency (7)
	Conceptual Development	Professional development (3)	Technology-driven

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 9. Frequency Aspects Exploratory Codes

Focused and Frequent Code	Frequency
Assessment-driven	10
Mandated	8
Multiple-learning styles	10
Scaffolding instruction	10
Self-assessment	9
Standards-based	6
Student Engagement	8
Teacher Efficiency	7

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 10. Open Codes Across Cases and Contexts with Frequencies (n=94)

Open Codes for Teachers' Decisions					
Admin curriculum (3)	CTX-Future app (2)	Homogenous groups	Publisher materials (5)	Student assessment based (2)	Student weaknesses (6)
AP curriculum	CTX-non-local	Identity development	Real world-NA	Student creativity	Target based (23)
Assessment based (15)	CTX-setting lit.	Inexpensive (2)	Real world-newspaper	Student engagement	Team based decisions
Availability (2)	CTX-Student and curriculum (2)	Innovation- P4C (3)	Relevant-pop culture	Student engagement technology	Test driven (6)
Belief in field based (1)	Data driven (2)	Innovative practice	Research-based	Student engagement- extrinsic	Universe competition
Best practices (2)	Developmentally appropriate (6)	Inquiry based (5)	Rigorous	Student engagement- games	Value of literature (2)
Borrowed from teacher	Differentiation-individual (5)	Inquiry based-student (4)	Science content-based	Student engagement-cognition	Student weaknesses (6)
Chunking instruction	Differentiation-SPED	Language development-ELL (3)	Scripted (3)	Student engagement-creativity	Target based (23)
Co-construction of knowledge	Discussion based (2)	Mandated best practices	Self-directed learning	Student engagement-discussion (6)	Team based decisions
Conceptual development	District strategy (2)	Modeling and examples	Sequencing (24)	Student engagement-games	
Connect abstract to concrete	Diverse learning strategies	Multidisciplinary (3)	Setting of novel	Student engagement-general (2)	
Context- experiential learning	Diverse learning tactile (5)	Other sourced	Situated learning	Student engagement-no ref	
Context-humanization	Diverse Learning Visual (11)	Previous experience	Skill building (22)	Student engagement-shock	
Context-real world place (4)	Diverse Learning-Auditory (3)	Professional autonomy (15)	Small group instruction (2)	Student engagement-tactile	
Context-real world scenario	Diverse learning-logical (2)	Professional Development (3)	Standards based (16)	Student engagement-tech (6)	
Context-women's issues	Ease of use (11)	Professional sharing	Standards-Common Core (5)	Student engagement-travel	
Contextualized-Primary	Flexible groups (2)	Project based (5)	State mandate (13)	Student safety	

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 11. Focused Codes Across Cases and Contexts (n=39)

Focused Code	Freq.	Focused Code	Freq.	Focused Code	Freq.
Admin. decisions	3	Inexpensive	2	Research-based	1
AP curriculum	1	Innovation	4	Rigorous	1
Assessment-based	23	Inquiry-based	9	Science content-based	1
Availability	2	Language development-ELL	3	Self-directed learning	10
Best practices	2	Modeling and examples	1	Sequencing	24
Context-building	22	Multidisciplinary	3	Skill-building	22
Data-driven	2	Other sourced	1	Standards-based	21
Developmental	9	Previous experience	1	State-mandate	16
Differentiation	6	Professional autonomy	15	Student engagement	27
Diverse learning	21	Professional Development	3	Student weaknesses	6
Ease-of-use	11	Professional sharing	3	Target-based	23
Flexible groups	5	Project based	5	Team-based decisions	1
Identity development	1	Publisher materials	8	Value of literature	3
<i>Total</i>	108		58		156

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 12. Most Frequent Focused Codes Across Cases and Contexts (n=10)

Focused Code	Frequency
Student engagement	27
Sequencing	24
Target-based	23
Assessment-based	23
Skill-building	22
Context-building	22
Diverse learning	21
Standards-based	21
State mandates	16
Professional autonomy	15
Ease-of-use	11
Self-directed learning	10

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Output Table 13. Categories Across Cases and Contexts (before deeper dive n=294)

High Frequency Focused Code (<20)	Freq.	Lower Frequency Focused Code (>20)	Freq.
Student engagement	45	Professional autonomy	16
Diverse learning strategies	32	Ease-of-use	15
Assessment-based	29	Professional Development	11
Administrative decisions	27	Differentiation-individual	9
Context-Building	24	Developmentally appropriate	8
Sequencing	24	Grouping	5
Target-based	23	Best-practices	4
Skill-building	22		
<i>Total</i>	<i>226</i>		<i>68</i>

APPENDIX FOUR: ANALYTICAL INTERPRETATIONS TABLES

Analytical Interpretations Table 1. 12 Conceptual Categories of Teachers' Decisions

Categories for Teachers' Decisions		
Administrative-driven	Differentially Appropriate-based	Resources-based
Assessment-based	Instructional Diversification-based	Sequence-based
Autonomy-driven	Student Engagement-driven	Skill-building
Context-building	Professional Learning-based (PD)	Standards-based

Analytical Interpretations Table 2. Frequencies of Unique Codes in Category Across Cases and Contexts

High Frequency Focused Code (<20)	Freq.	Lower Frequency Focused Code (>20)	Freq.
Engagement-based	44	Resources-based	17
Diverse learning strategies	38	Autonomy-driven	16
Administrative-driven	34	Sequence-based	16
Assessment-based	29	Differentially Appropriate-based	15
Standards-based	28	Professional Development (PD)	11
Skill-building	28		
Context-building	25		
<i>Total Frequency of Unique Codes</i>	<i>226</i>		<i>75</i>

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Interpretations Table 3. Dimensions of *Student Engagement* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Student engagement</i>	Inquiry-based	9
	Discussion-based	8
	Technology-based	7
	General	6
	The Hook	6
	Project-based	5
	Multidisciplinary	3
<i>Total Frequency</i>		44

Analytical Interpretations Table 4. Dimensions of *Instructional Diversification* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Diverse Learning</i>	Visual	11
	Self-directed	10
	Tactile	6
	Grouping	5
	Auditory	3
	Logical	2
	General Reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		38

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Interpretations Table 5. Dimensions of *Administrative-Driven* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Administrative-driven</i>	State-mandate	13
	Scripted-curriculum	10
	Publisher-materials	5
	District-strategy	2
	Mandated best-practices	2
	AP-curriculum	1
	General reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		34

Analytical Interpretations Table 6. Dimensions of *Assessment-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Assessment-based</i>	General Reference	8
	Identified student weakness	6
	Test-driven AP	5
	Data Team-driven	6
	Student self-assessment	3
	Test-driven SBAC	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		29

Analytical Interpretations Table 7. Dimensions of *Standards-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Standards-based</i>	General reference	17
	Common Core standards	7
	Standards-Benchmarks	1
	Scripted-targets	1
	Hawai'i Content and Performance Standards	1
	Next Generation Science Standards	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		28

Analytical Interpretations Table 8. Dimensions of *Skill-Building* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Skill-building</i>	Academic Target-ELA	11
	Academic Target-Math	7
	Target-based (general)	4
	Leveled-instruction	2
	Academic Skill- forming opinions	2
	Career Skills	1
	Academic Skill- Collaboration	1
	Academic Skill- Questioning	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		28

Analytical Interpretations Table 9. Dimensions of *Context-building* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Context-building</i>	Real-world place	4
	Field-based	4
	Real-world scenario	3
	Value of Literature	3
	General	3
	Future application	2
	Pop-culture	2
	Humanization	1
	Identity development	1
	Primary sources	1
	Women's issues	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		25

Analytical Interpretations Table 10. Dimensions of *Resource-Based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Resource-based</i>	Routine-ease of use	13
	Availability	2
	Inexpensive	2
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>17</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 11. Dimensions of *Professional Autonomy* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Professional Autonomy</i>	Modifications to the script	8
	General Reference	4
	Opposed to the script	2
	Outside supplemental resources	1
	Previous experience	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>16</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 12. Dimensions of *Sequencing the Curriculum* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Sequencing the curriculum</i>	Unit sequence	8
	Content Sequence	8
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>16</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 13. Dimensions of *Differentially Appropriate-based* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Differentially Appropriate-based</i>	General	6
	For individual	5
	For ELL	3
	For SPED	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>15</i>

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Interpretations Table 14. Dimensions of *Professional Development* Category

Category	Dimension	Freq.
<i>Professional Development</i>	Philosophy for Children	4
	Professional sharing	4
	CREDE	1
	Google Maps	1
	General Reference	1
<i>Total Frequency</i>		<i>11</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 15. Thematic Aspects of the Practical Continuum

<i>Thematic Aspect of Continuum</i>	Structure-centered	Teacher-centered	Learning-centered
<i>Category</i>	Administrative-driven	Assessment-based	Engagement-based
	Standards-based	Skill-building	Diverse learning-based
		Resource-based	Context-building
		Autonomy-driven	Differentially Appropriate-based
		Sequence-based	
		PD-based	

Analytical Interpretations Table 16. Thematic Aspects of the Practical Continuum w/ frequency

<i>Thematic Aspect of Continuum</i>	Structure-centered	Teacher-centered	Learning-centered
<i>Category</i>	Administrative-driven	Assessment-based	Engagement-based
	Standards-based	Skill-building	Diverse learning-based
		Resource-based	Contextual-based
		Autonomy-driven	Differentially Appropriate-based
		Sequence-based	
		PD-based	
<i>Frequency of Unique Codes</i>	62	117	122

Analytical Interpretations Table 17. Categorical Dimensions of *Structure-centered* Theme

<i>Category</i>	Administrative-driven	Standards-based
<i>Dimension</i>	State-mandate	General reference
	Scripted-curriculum	Common Core standards
	Publisher-materials	Standards-Benchmarks
	District-strategy	Scripted-targets
	Mandated best-practices	Hawai‘i Content and Performance Standards (HCPS)
	AP-curriculum	Next Generation Science Standards NGSS)
	General reference	

TEACHERS DECISIONS

Analytical Interpretations Table 18. Categorical Dimensions of *Teacher-Centered* Theme

<i>Category</i>	Assessment	Academic Skill-building	Resources	Sequence	PD-based	Autonomy
<i>Dimension</i>	General	Target-ELA	Routine-use	Unit	P4C	Modify the script
	student weaknesses	Target-Math	Availability	Content	Professional sharing	General
	Test-driven AP	Target-based (general)	Inexpensive		CREDE	Oppose the script
	Data Team-driven	Leveled-instruction			Google Maps	Outside resources
	Student assessment	Skill- opinions			General	
	Test-driven SBAC	Career Skills				
		Skill- Collaboration				
		Skill- Questioning				

Analytical Interpretations Table 19. Categorical Dimensions of *Learning-centered* Theme

<i>Category</i>	Engagement	Diverse	Contextual	Differential
<i>Dimension</i>	Inquiry-based	Visual	Real-world place	General
	Discussion-based	Self-directed	Field-based	Individual
	Technology-based	Tactile	Real-world scenario	ELL
	General	Grouping	Value of Literature	SPED
	The Hook	Auditory	General	
	Project-based	Logical	Future application	
	Multidisciplinary	General Reference	Pop-culture	
			Humanization	
			Identity development	
			Primary sources	
			Women's issues	

Analytical Interpretations Table 20. Standardized Aspects from Categorical Dimensions

<i>Standardized Aspect</i>	Mandates	Academic Skills	Assessments	Target Pop.
<i>Critical Dimensions</i>	District-strategy	Common Core	Assessments	ELL
	Best-practices	Benchmarks	Data-Teams	SPED
	Publisher-materials	Scripted-targets	Student weakness	
	Scripted-curriculum	NGSS	SBAC	
	State mandates	HCPS		
		College Prep		
		Career Skills		
		Target- ELA		
		Target- Math		

Analytical Interpretations Table 21. Contextualized Aspects from Categorical Dimensions

<i>Contextual Aspect</i>	Cultural-explicit	Cultural-general	Critical	Place-General
<i>Critical Dimensions</i>	CREDE Gender Issues Identity	Pop-culture Value of Literature	Humanization	Application Field-based Google Maps Real World Place Real World Scenario

Analytical Interpretations Table 22. Standardized and Contextualized Aspects in Non-Title I Contexts

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	12	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	14	Cultural-general	2
Standardized assessment	11	Critical	1
Target populations	1	Place-general	5
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>38</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>8</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 23. Standardized and Contextualized Aspects in Title I Contexts

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	18	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	28	Cultural-general	4
Standardized assessment	10	Critical	0
Target populations	3	Place-general	2
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>6</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 24. Standardized and Contextualized Aspects in Marginalized Contexts

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	15	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	22	Cultural-general	3
Standardized assessment	8	Critical	0
Target populations	3	Place-general	2
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>5</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 25. Standardized and Contextualized Aspects Across Cases and Contexts

Standardized Aspects	Frequency	Contextualized Aspects	Frequency
Standardized mandates	30	Cultural-explicit	0
Standardized skills	42	Cultural-general	6
Standardized assessment	21	Critical	1
Target populations	4	Place-general	7
<i>Total Standardized</i>	<i>97</i>	<i>Total Contextualized</i>	<i>14</i>

Analytical Interpretations Table 26. Thematic Dimensions of Standardized Aspects Across Cases and Contexts

Standardized Pedagogy	Structure-centered	Teacher-Discursive	Teacher-Tensional
<i>Aspects</i>	Standardized mandates	Standardized assessment	Struggle for autonomy
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • District-strategy • Best practices • Publisher-materials • Scripted-curriculum • State mandates 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modify the script • Oppose the script
<i>Aspects</i>	Standardized skills	Standardized Skills	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common Core • Benchmarks • Scripted-targets • NGSS • HCPS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • College Prep • Career Skills • ELA • Math 	
<i>Aspects</i>	Standardized assessment	Target populations	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SBAC • Data-Teams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ELL • SPED 	

APPENDIX FIVE: THEORETICAL PEDAGOGY TABLE

Theoretical Table 1. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects of Standardized Pedagogy.

Pedagogy	Ideological Constructs	Theoretical Orientation	Practical Considerations
<i>Standardized</i>	<p>The ideological constructs of standardized pedagogies include a common, Western knowledge base, market driven distribution of resources based in meritocracy arrived at through the provision of “equal” and “quality” inputs. They are also based in creating a “good” citizen, an American identity, and include undertones of Western ideals of development and private ownership over one’s life as the foundation of enlightened thinking. Standardized pedagogies are derived from Neoliberal ideological orientations in order to improve the academic performance of students measured to be underperforming. Western rationality attempts to control factors of input to reach specific goals of capital development and individual economic liberty and competition.</p>	<p>Standardized pedagogies are associated with “cookie-cutter”, “data-driven”, “research-based”, “scripted”, and “prescriptive” approaches to teaching and learning. Every student should receive the same education, regardless of their context. Uniformity is the only fair way to provide equal opportunity for fair evaluation and a fair judgement. This is based in a rational approach to achieving equalized opportunity by prescribing specific outcomes, standardizing inputs of instruction and curriculum, and measuring performance by standardized assessments.</p>	<p>Standardized approaches often dictate content, materials, pace, instructional strategies, and perhaps most powerfully, the assessments to measure learning. Approaches that utilize standardized instructional mechanisms, such as common purpose, common objectives or standards, prescriptive outcomes, scripted curriculum, data teams and mining, instructional frameworks, “high stakes” assessments, and teacher evaluation.</p>

Theoretical Table 2. Associative Problems Across the Development of Standardized Pedagogies.

Standardized
Pedagogy

- Originate from historical policies, scholarship, and ideals linked to racist colonial policies and practices, social engineering models linked to eugenics thinking and Christian and philanthropic “salvation” narratives, and the desired assimilation of non-western peoples into the hegemony of the Western-worldview.
 - Exist in political climate that values U.S. national interests, including a strong military, advanced technology, and economic domination. Policies have blamed the public system of education for being unable to fix the perceived deficiencies in culturally diverse and marginalized people that drive a weakening of the U.S. global standing.
 - Reorganize around Neoliberal ideologies that prioritize a worldview that values human behavior as actions predicated on the economic competition over limited social resources.
 - Standardized pedagogies operate on narrow theoretical constructions of uniformity, equality, fairness, and meritocracy for the equalized opportunity at limited social resources.
 - Use a treatment model approach to correcting perceived underperformance by ensuring an equal and quality education for all. Policies mandate standardized outcomes, inputs, assessment, and evaluations. These pedagogies deploy universal and decontextualized educational mechanisms across diverse and unique contexts on the basis that they have been proven to work in their treatment of diverse groups. Approaches are intermittently and cyclically evaluated for fidelity and compliance.
 - Defines teachers’ work as scripted, technical, and performative.
-

Theoretical Table 3. Ideological, Theoretical, and Practical Aspects Within Contextualized Pedagogies

Pedagogy	Ideological construct	Theoretical Orientation	Practical Considerations
<i>Culture Based Pedagogy</i>	Recognition of students lived experience including: perspectives, values, norms, language, actions, knowledge, and community as a meaningful	Learning is a social process that takes place in relationship to sociocultural contexts. Learning is making sense of the social world through authentic experiences and the co-construction of meaning with other social members of the community.	Learning begins with student prior knowledge and experiences from home and community. Learning is linked to language, social norms and values present in students' lives. Learning takes place with members of families and community. Planning is done in consultation with community members. Opportunities are provided for students to apply knowledge in their authentic life worlds.
<i>Critical Pedagogy</i>	Recognizes that students lived experience is situated within a social inequality and dominant social structures and that knowledge and awareness of these structures in relationship to learning can provide opportunities for social justice and individual transformation	Learning is an opportunity to confront social inequality, dominant and hegemonic social ideology and structures. Learning is an opportunity for individuals and communities to liberate their minds and life-worlds from objective, legitimate, positivist, and dehumanized constructions of truth.	Learning should be linked to larger sociopolitical realities found in the life of the student and community. Learning should be designed to develop critical understanding of social structures and social inequalities present in their lives, thereby leading engaged opportunities for emancipation.
<i>Place based Pedagogy</i>	Recognizes experiential learning connected to the ecological world develops relationships, empathy, and opportunity for mutual benefit and cultural and environmental sustainability.	Learning is an opportunity to develop relationships and understanding of student's social and ecological environments. Learning is an opportunity to examine the social and ecological issues present in the life world of the student.	Learning is multidisciplinary and experiential. Learning is linked to locations and social issues that exist in actual places. Learning is a link between the student and the community. Learning is explicitly tied to geography and ecology of the place in which students are learning.

Theoretical Table 4. General and Shared Reasons for Development Across Specific Contextualized Pedagogies.

<i>Contextualized Pedagogies</i>	Reasons for contextualized pedagogies
<i>Culture Based Pedagogy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Historically, public schools have been founded on the interests of a dominant society including assimilation of students from diverse sociocultural backgrounds. Standardized educational mechanisms perceive students from diverse sociocultural backgrounds as having deficits that require remediation.
<i>Critical Pedagogy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Standardized pedagogical approaches are insufficient and disconnected from education that supports marginalized learners in diverse contexts. Contextualized pedagogy transforms education, encourages social justice, and humanizes knowledge production by including cultural, sociopolitical, and environmental issues in teaching and learning
<i>Place based Pedagogy</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contextualized pedagogy and practice results in student engagement, learning, and academic achievement Teachers are critical to transforming education.

